





BRITISH SOCIETY AND CULTURE

英国社会与文化

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BRITISH SOCIETY AND CULTURE

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前　言

过去三十多年里，随着我国改革开放的日益深入和国际交流的不断扩大，人们不但对英语语言和文学的兴趣日渐浓厚，而且对英美文化的认识和研究也日益深入。越来越多的人认识到，如果不全面了解英美文化，就不可能真正掌握英语这门语言，也谈不上对英美文学的深入研究；在高校英语教学中，只注重语言知识和技能还远远不够，必须了解和研究英美文化知识。

基于这种认识，我们编写了这套"**英美社会与文化丛书**"。本丛书分为**《美国社会与文化》**和**《英国社会与文化》**两册，是一套关于美国和英国的社会与文化背景的教科书，旨在帮助高校英语专业学生和英语爱好者了解这两个国家的社会与文化概貌，开阔他们的视野，培养他们独立思考的精神和分析批判的能力，提高他们的英语水平和跨文化交际水平。

本丛书每册分别由十八章组成，内容涉及英国和美国社会与文化的各个层面，包括政治、经济、地理、教育、法律、宗教、文学、外交、价值观念、社会生活和文化传统等方面的基本知识。在每章课文后的注释中简要解释历史人物、重大事件、典故、语言难点和读者不易理解的词语。每章的开头有一至两篇汉语简介，起导读作用。每章后有若干思考题，还有一篇补充阅读材料，为读者提供更多的相关信息。此外，每章最后附有参考书目及相关网址，以方便读者学习和查阅。

本丛书具有以下几个特点：

第一，内容全面。本丛书概括地介绍了英美两国的社会和文化的各个方面，力争在有限的篇幅里比较全面地向读者展示比较真实的英国和美国，使读者在阅读过程中不仅扩大知识面和词汇量，而且在提高英语语言水平方面有所裨益，为他们日后进一步学习和研究英美文化打下良好的基础。

第二，材料新颖。本丛书注重历史与现实的结合，对一个专题既从历史的角度又从事物发展的角度进行介绍。例如，《美国社会与文化》一书中的第二单元简要介绍了2008年美国总统选举，第十一单元提到了2008年美国金融危机。

第三，文字规范。除了参考国内目前已出版的英美文化类书籍，丛书的许多内容从英美

原版图书、杂志中摘选，还有一部分资料网络。我们在选材时力求文字地道、规范、易懂，尽量做到知识性、权威性、趣味性、时效性并存。

本丛书是集体努力的成果。参加本丛书编写的成员有韩林烨、贺琳、李燕、马丽、孟利、仝楠、王博佳、王静、王晓红，均为西安外国语大学英文学院的英语教师。本册第二、四、五章由王静编写，第三、七章由王博佳编写，第六章由仝楠编写，第一、八、九、十章由韩林烨编写，第十一、十七章由李燕编写，第十二至十六章及十八章由贺琳编写。

本丛书既可用作高等学校英语专业英美文化的选修课教材，也可供具有同等英语水平的读者自学使用。

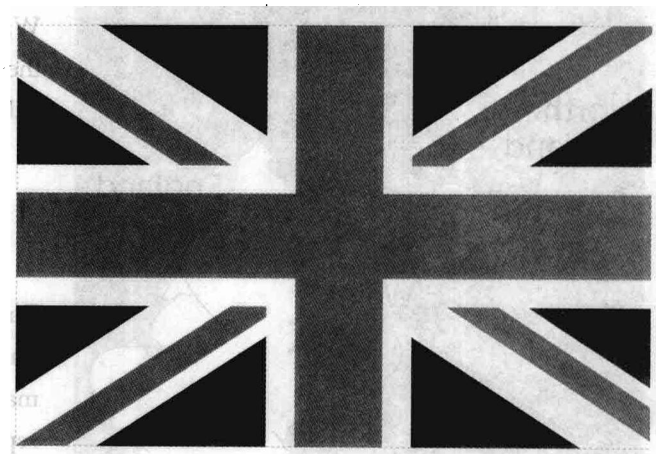
由于编者水平有限，丛书中难免存在许多不足，恳请同行及读者不吝指正。

编　者

2010 年 5 月

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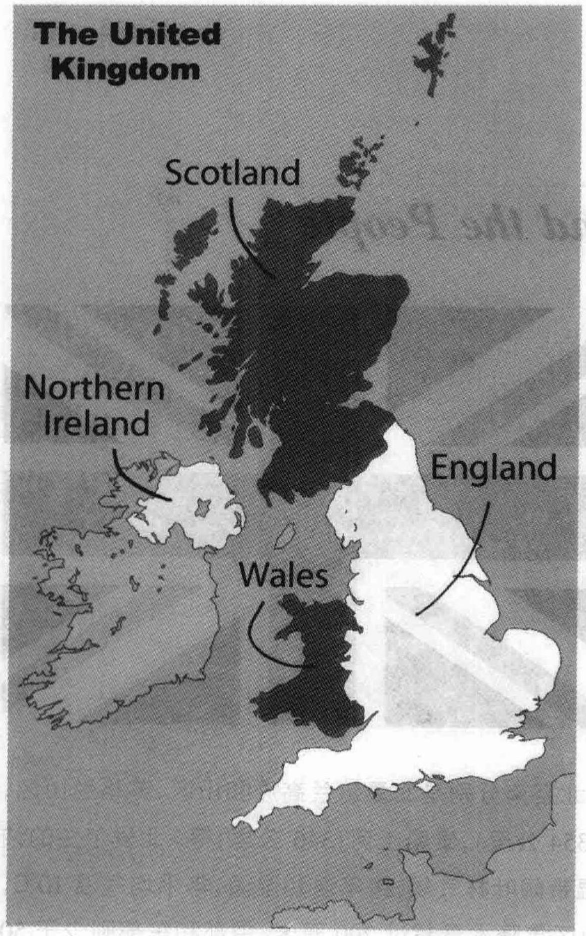


导读 Introduction

英国全称大不列颠及北爱尔兰联合王国，位于欧洲大陆西北面的不列颠群岛，被北海、英吉利海峡、凯尔特海、爱尔兰海和大西洋所包围。联合王国由英格兰、苏格兰、威尔士、北爱尔兰及一系列附属岛屿组成。它的陆界与爱尔兰共和国接壤，海岸线总长 12 500 公里。从地形上看，由北至南分别是北爱尔兰高原和山区，苏格兰山区，中西部山区和英格兰东南部平原。主要河流有塞文河(354 公里)，泰晤士河(346 公里)等。北爱尔兰的讷湖面积(396 平方公里)居全国之首。全境属于海洋性温带阔叶林气候，终年温和湿润，年平均气温 10℃，冬季平均 5℃左右，夏季平均约 15℃。 北部和西部的山区年降水量超过 200 厘米，中部和东部则少于 50 厘米。英国有储量丰富的煤，石油，天然气等自然资源。近年来，对新能源的开发和利用以及对自然环境的保护备受政府重视。英国人口总数约为 6 000 万左右，其中英格兰居住人口最多，占总人口的比重达 83.8%。首都伦敦，是英国居住人口最多，人口密度最大的城市。二战后，随着世界各地移民的到来，英国人口构成呈现多元化的发展趋势。英语仍然是大多数人口使用的主要语言。本章简要介绍英国的地理和人口概况。

"*When people say England, they sometimes mean Great Britain, sometimes the United Kingdom, sometimes the British Isles, but never England.*" —*How to be an Alien by George Mikes*

The full and official name of the country is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, which refers to the union of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Very often different names, correctly or incorrectly, are used to describe the country, such as the United Kingdom, the UK, Britain, Great Britain, and even England. The first three names are all acceptable, while the last two are not. In fact, as the largest island of the British Isles (a group of islands lying off the north-west coast of mainland Europe), Great Britain comprises England, Scotland, Wales, together with all the offshore islands. Great Britain and Northern Ireland together form the United Kingdom.



A map of the United Kingdom
England Northern Ireland Scotland Wales

As for using the term "England" to refer to the UK, it is more unforgivable, for England is only one part of the country. Maybe because England is the largest, most populous part with dominant influence over the country, people tend to use "England" and "English" when they mean "Britain" and "British". This, to some extent, offends people in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland who do not regard themselves as English and who have their own cultures and even their own languages.

I. Geography

In history, Britain used to be connected to the European continent, but the melting of the glaciers during the Ice Age caused the rising of the sea level, making it an island nation today. Britain is now separated from the continent by the North Sea at its widest point and by the English Channel at its narrowest which is just 35 km (22 miles) apart from France. It is also surrounded to the west by the Irish Sea, the Celtic Sea and the Atlantic Ocean.

The United Kingdom consists of two large islands as mentioned above, Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and several hundred small islands including the Isle of Wight, the Isles of the Scilly, the Hebrides, Orkney, and Shetlands. The mainland areas lie between latitudes 49°N and 59°N (Shetlands reach to nearly 61°N), and longitudes 8°W to 2°E. The only land border connecting the kingdom to another country is between Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland, which is 488 km (303 miles) long.

The total area of the United Kingdom is approximately 245,000 square kilometers (94,600 sq mi). England is the largest country of the United Kingdom, covering an area of 130,410 square kilometers (50,350 sq mi), which is over half the total area of the UK. Scotland, with an area of 78,772 square kilometers (30,410 sq mi), is the second largest, taking up about a third of the area of the UK. Wales and Northern Ireland are much smaller, covering 20,758 square kilometers (8,010 sq mi) and 14,160 square kilometers (5,470 sq mi) respectively.

Landscape

The landscape of the UK is very varied, roughly dividing the country into highland and lowland regions. High hills and mountains are more often found in the north and west; the rolling plains mainly concentrate in the south and east. Ben Nevis in Scotland, 4406 feet (1343m) high, is the highest mountain of the UK. The highest elevations can be found in the south-west (Dartmoor and Exmoor),



and the Pennine mountains of north-central England; the Cambrian mountains of Wales; the central areas of Northern Ireland; and the southern uplands, Grampian mountains, and north-west highlands of Scotland. The rest of the UK mainly consists of plains and lowlands, especially in the east and south of England.

England

England occupies the central and southern two-thirds of Great Britain including offshore islands. It is bordered to the north by Scotland and to the west by Wales.

Different types of rock under the ground determine the landscape of England. Chalk made the gently

rolling hills of South Downs, and hard granite provides the foundation for the mountains of the north and the moorlands of Dartmoor and Exmoor in the Southwest.

Much of the land in England is flat and low-lying—less than 1,000m above sea level. Thus large areas of meadowlands, pastures and woodlands can be found across England, especially in the east.

The north of England is categorized into the upland area, where a chain of hills between 600 and 900 meters in height, the Pennies, divides northern England into northwest and northeast sectors. The Pennies is also called the upland "spine" of England, running down from the Scottish border to the river Trent about halfway down the length of England. The highest point of England, Scafell Pike (978m), part of the Cumbrian Mountains, is located in northwest England. The area of the Cumbrian Mountains is the rockiest part in England and is more commonly known as the Lake District, which is famous for its lakes and scenic beauty.

The southwest of England is a long peninsular, featuring desolate moorlands and rough areas. It is also home to the moorland plateaus of Dartmoor and Exmoor, and many picturesque valleys. The central part of southern England is mainly covered by the vast stretches of Salisbury Plain, which is a chalk plateau covering 780 square kilometers and having Stonehenge on it as one of the best-known landmarks in England. The east of England is characterized by its flatness, with the Fenlands in East Anglia; it is also an important agricultural base.

Scotland

Scotland consists of the northern one-third of the Great Britain and more than 790 surrounding islands. It has very diverse terrains, ranging from rural lowlands to barren uplands, and from large cities to isolated islands. The land is generally divided into three regions: the Highlands in the north, the central Lowlands, and the southern Uplands.

The Highlands, covering 60 per cent of northwest Scotland, are extensive mountainous areas with the maximum height of around 1,300 m. The Great Glen, a series of glens running 100 kilometers from Fort William to Inverness, cuts the area into the Grampian Mountains to the southeast and the Northwest Highlands to the northwest. Glens in Scotland are usually steep-sided valleys, with a long and narrow loch at the bottom.

The Grampian Mountains are the highest on the British Isles, having Ben Nevis as the tallest peak. Ben Lomond, at 3,192 feet (973m), rises from the shore of Loch Lomond, Scotland's largest freshwater loch. The Northwest Highlands have great sea lochs, large lakes, wild and rough hills.

The central Lowlands are characterized by fertile soil, coal and iron fields and dairy pastures. Located in this region, the Firth of Clyde in the west and the Firth of Forth in the east provide valuable outlets to the sea. It is also the main farming district in Scotland and boasts several large cities, including Edinburgh and Glasgow, and 90 per cent of Scottish population.

The southern Uplands have hills less than 2,000 feet (600 meters) high, which are often cut by broad valleys. Some of the most remote and least inhabited areas in Scotland are also located here. It is home to Scotland's highest village, Wanlockhead, at 1,531 feet (467 meters).

Wales

Wales comprises a peninsula in the central west of Great Britain and offshore islands. It is bounded on the north by Liverpool Bay, on the west by Cardigan Bay, and on the south by the Bristol Channel. In the east Wales borders England.

Most parts of Wales are covered by mountains. There are three mountainous regions in particular: Snowdonia in the northwest, the Cambrian Mountains in mid Wales, and the Brecon Beacons in the south. In fact, the Cambrian Mountains are a series of mountain ranges, stretching from the south Wales mountains of the Brecon Beacons, Carmarthenshire and Ceredigion, to Snowdonia in north Wales. The name of Snowdonia comes from the mountain Snowdon in the area, which is the highest point in Wales at 1,085 meters (3,560ft). The Brecon Beacons reach a height of 886 meters (2,906ft). Along the English border are smaller ranges, including the Berwin Mountains, Beacon Hill, Radnor Forest, and the Black Mountains.

The lowland area is confined mainly to the narrow coastal belts and the valley floors; the lowland region of southeastern Wales contains the largest cities and industrial establishments in Wales.

Wales also boasts many waterfalls, including some of the most striking waterfalls of United Kingdom. The highest and most famous waterfall in Wales is Pistyll Rhaeadr at 75 meters (240 ft). The name of the fall is Welsh, meaning "spring of the waterfall" and it is located near the village of Llanrhaeadr-ym-Mochnant. It is also counted as one of the Seven Wonders of Wales. The 19th century English author George Borrow wrote that "I never saw water falling so gracefully, so much like thin, beautiful threads, as here."

Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland takes up about one-sixth of the island of Ireland and is separated on the east from Scotland, by the narrow North Channel, which is at one point only 13 miles (21 km) wide. The Irish Sea separates Northern Ireland from England and Wales on the east and southeast, respectively, and the Atlantic Ocean lies to the north. The southern and western borders are with the Republic of Ireland.

The land is shaped like a saucer, featuring low central plains surrounded by a ring of coastal mountains. The central lowlands are characterized by rolling hills, marshy hollows, peat bogs and river valleys. The Antrim Plateau rises in the northeast, the Sperrin Mountains in the northwest, and the Mourne Mountains in the southeast. The highest point is Slieve Donard, rising to 2,796 feet (852 meters) in the Mourne Mountains in County Down. Near the center of the province lies Lough Neagh, the largest lake in the British Isles.

Lakes and Rivers

Thanks to its moist climate with adequate rainfall, the UK is home to many lakes and rivers. Lough Neagh in Northern Ireland, the largest lake in the UK, covers an area of 396 sq km (153 sq miles). Loch Lomond in Scotland, the largest on the island of Great Britain, extends about 24 miles (39km), widening south in the shape of a triangle. Among the 15 major lakes in the English Lake District, Windermere is the largest, which is 10.5 miles (17 km) long and 1 mile (1.6 km) wide and has an area of 6 square miles (16 square km). Another of Scotland's lakes, Loch Ness is famous for a mythical "monster" ("Nessie").

The River Severn is the longest river in the UK, which is almost 220 miles (354 km) in length. It originates from the Cambrian Mountains of mid-Wales and discharges into the British Channel, which finally flows into the Atlantic Ocean. It is also one of the ten major rivers in the UK in terms of water flow.

The River Thames, 215 miles (346 km) is the second longest river in the UK and the longest one in England. It rises in Cotswold Hills, flows through the capital city of London and finally discharges into

the North Sea; other cities on Thames include Oxford, Reading and Windsor. The river has special significance; for centuries it has provided habitation, water power, food and drink for people living in London and other places on its course.

As an important river in Scotland, the River Clyde, 171 kilometers long, rises in Dumfries and flows through Glasgow and finally enters the Firth of Clyde. It played a key role in the development of shipbuilding industry and foreign trade before the Second World War.

Coastline

In comparison to its area, the UK has a long coastline, which is around 12,500 kilometers (7760 miles) and offers some of the best scenery in Britain. England has a coastline of about 3,200 kilometers. The coastline is rocky with steep cliffs in the south and west, while the east coast is flat and low lying, with beaches and mud flats.

Scotland has an irregular and deeply indented coastline, at the length of about 3,700 kilometers (2,300 miles). The rugged western coast, in particular, is pierced by numerous inlets from the sea. Most of these inlets are narrow submerged valleys with steep sides, known as sea lochs. The larger and broader inlets are called firths. The principal firths are the Firth of Lorne, the Firth of Clyde (see Clyde), and Solway Firth. On the eastern coast, there are Dornoch Firth, Moray Firth, the Firth of Tay, and the Firth of Forth. The majority of British islands (approximately 790) are located off shore from Scotland; three main groups of islands are the Hebrides, the Orkney Islands and the Shetland Islands.

Northern Ireland has rugged and wild coastline in the north and the west, with many islands, peninsulas and bays. The island is divided by the River Shannon, which at 259 km (161 miles) is the longest river in Ireland and flows south to meet the Atlantic. The seashores are rocky, but deep inlets provide excellent harbors. On the northern coast of the country rises the striking natural formation called the Giant's Causeway, which is made up of thousands of columns of basalt rock.

Climate

The UK is in the temperate climate zone and does not have extremes of temperature or rainfall. The main influence on its climate is the close proximity to the Atlantic Ocean, the northern latitude, and the warming of the waters around the land by the Gulf Stream (a warm current of the northern Atlantic Ocean). Being surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean to the West, the English Channel to the south, and the North Sea to the east, the UK, a small island country, is more influenced by the ocean than other European countries. The Gulf Stream, also known as the North Atlantic Drift, is the main ocean current that affects Britain and warms it by 5-8℃. The average annual temperature in Britain is about 10℃, with the summer average temperature being around 15℃ and the winter average being around 5℃.

There are also climatic differences throughout the UK. The coldest winter temperatures in the country occur in eastern Scotland and England. The western side of Britain is warmed by the influence of the tropical maritime airstreams. Therefore, during winter temperatures are colder in the east than in the west. During summer the south is warmer than the north. This is due to the differences in solar heat received, being greater in the south.

The British climate can be generally divided into four parts. The northwest region is featured by mild winters and cool summers and the northeast with cold winters and cool summers. The southwest experiences mild winters and warm summers and the southeast has cold winters and warm summers. Western parts of Britain generally experience a more maritime climate during winter while eastern Britain

is influenced by the cold airstreams from the European continent. In summer, climate differences are more determined by latitude.

The country is also well-known for its variable and changeable weather from day to day. Therefore, visitors to the UK should be prepared for rapid changes of weather at all seasons and realize that there is good reason for weather being a major talking point in Britain.

The south and southeast of England receive the longest hours of sunshine in average, and the north and west receive the least. Western Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland have much less sunshine than most of England. In the UK, daily sunshine hours range from between one and two in midwinter to between five and seven in midsummer. Because of frequent fogs and low clouds, winter sunshine is much reduced. This is a consequence of winds from the Atlantic and seas surrounding the UK, which bring high humidity. For the same reason, British mountains are particularly cloudy and wet.

Precipitation also varies throughout the country. The west of the UK, especially the parts on higher ground, receives considerable rainfall. Parts of Scotland can receive over 250cm or 100inches of precipitation annually. The east of the UK, especially southeastern parts, receives much less rainfall. Areas of the southeast may receive only 50cm or 20inches of precipitation each year. Much of the eastern areas lie in the rain shadow of hills and mountains such as the Lake District, the Peak District and the Scottish Highlands with annual rainfall exceeding 150cm or 60inches and in places reaching as much as 500cm or 200inches. These are among the wettest places in Europe.

Snow may occur anywhere in Britain in winter or even spring but, except on the hills, it rarely lies for more than a few days. In some winters there may be very little snow, but every fifteen or twenty years it may lie for some weeks during a prolonged cold spell.

Natural Resources

The UK is endowed with significant supplies of coal, natural gas and oil. Large deposits of coal, mined for more than 300 years, were found in areas such as the north of England, the south of Wales and the central Scotland. Coal was the country's richest natural resource for most of the last two centuries, being one of the primary energy resources for the industrial development. However, coal production has declined rapidly since 1970s when Britain was the world's third largest producer of coal. Only 35 million tons of coal was produced in the year 2000, compared with 145 million in 1970. It now accounts for just 16 per cent of British energy consumption, down from 30 per cent in 1990, and it is largely used as a fuel for generating electricity.

Britain has been a major producer in oil and natural gas since they were discovered in the North Sea in the 1960s. The 1970s and the 1980s were the peak time of oil production. As the North Sea's oil reserves have been depleted, the oil output has declined steadily since 1999 and this trend will continue in the following years. In June 2004, Britain became the net importer of oil for the first time in decade. Natural gas is the country's biggest source of primary energy, accounting for 40 per cent of needs. As the world's fourth biggest producer of natural gas, the UK is estimated to be self-sufficient of natural gas well into the century.

Today, renewable energy including solar, wind and geothermal power are increasingly drawing the government's and the public's attention; they are expected to eventually replace the coal, oil and gas-fired

power stations in the future.

Although Britain has limited land area, agriculture in Britain has long been among the most technologically advanced and productive in the world. Its highly mechanized and efficient agriculture provides about two-thirds of the country's food needs by employing no more than 2% of the labor force. It contributes over 1 per cent of Britain's gross domestic product. Due to the differences in relief, climate, and soil type etc., different types of agricultural production can be found in different regions throughout the country. Half of Britain's farms focus on dairy farming, sheep and cattle-raising, most of which are located in the northern, western and south-eastern parts in the UK and contribute about one-third to the country's agricultural output. The other half engage in poultry, egg production and crop production such as wheat, barley, oats and vegetables. Crop farms are mainly in the eastern and central-southern England.

The Environment

With the rapid pace of industrial development and population growth, environmental protection has been a major concern in the UK. In the past, the country was once notorious for its severe air pollution; the term "smog" was invented to describe the combination of smoke and fog that once polluted the air over major industrial cities, especially London. This is no longer the case in today's Britain; air and water are cleaner than at any time since the beginning of industrial development.

Since 1950s, British government began to take measures to clean the air. The Clean Air Act, passed in 1955, was a major attempt to reduce industrial pollution. What's more, the increased use of gas and electricity as a replacement for coal as a primary source of energy further reduced air pollution. Between the 1980s and 1990s, real progress was made in this area: nitrogen oxide emissions, mainly from road traffic, decreased by one-third in 2002 compared with that in 1989, which is expected to drop further by 70 per cent until 2015; sulphur dioxide emissions, mainly from power stations, have been cut down by 80 per cent since 1970 and carbon monoxide emissions have been reduced by 50 per cent; carbon dioxide emissions dropped by almost 15 per cent between 1990 and 2004.

In addition to the efforts of air-pollution control, the area of protected land in the country has increased significantly since the World War II. At present, there are 14 national parks in the UK with 9 in England, 3 in Wales and 2 in Scotland. There are also 42 Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty, 40 National Scenic Areas in Scotland, 17 forest parks, more than 200 regional parks and smaller protected areas. Altogether, they cover more than 20 per cent of the land area of the UK.

Like all other EU member states, now the UK mainly follows the environmental regulations and standards set by the European Union on environmental quality. Therefore, sustainable development, that is to improve the quality of water and air, improve the use of chemicals and pesticides, reduce waste, conserve energy, and manage forests and fisheries etc., has become the main objective for the UK.

II. Population

According to the latest census in 2001, the total population of the United Kingdom was 58,789,194—ranking the third in the European Union (following Germany and France) and the 21st in the world. This figure has grown to 60,587,300 in mid-2006 estimated by the Office for National Statistics of the UK.

Part	Population (mid-2006)	% (mid-2006)
England	50,762,900	83.8
Scotland	5,116,900	8.4
Wales	2,965,900	4.9
Northern Ireland	1,741,600	2.9
United Kingdom	60,587,300	100

(1 July 2006 population estimates by UK National Statistics)

The annual rate of population growth in the UK has been declining for years and currently it is about 0.6 per cent. The British population is expected to keep growing slowly. By the year 2040, it is estimated to peak at 66 million and then begin to fall.

Rising immigration is believed to be the main reason for the population growth. Statistics released by the Office of National Statistics (ONS) in the UK show that in the year of 2005, the British population grew 185,000 due to immigration, which represents an increase of 500 people per day.

Population Density

The average population density in the UK is about 250 people per sq km, one of the highest in the world. England is the most densely populated part in the country with the population density of more than 380 people per sq km, which means nearly 84 per cent of British population reside in England. Less than 9 per cent of the British population settle in Scotland, with a population density of 65 people per sq km. Wales has about 5 per cent of the total population and a population density of 139 people per sq km. Northern Ireland accounts for less than 3 per cent of the population in the UK with a population density of 121 people per sq km.

London, the capital city of the UK, occupies an area of over 1, 580 square kilometers and has a population of over 7 million, making it the most populous city in the European Union. It is also one of the European Union's most densely settled areas: only Copenhagen, Brussels and Paris are more densely populated.

The information below has been taken from the 2001 Census. A census of the British population has been taken every 10 years since 1801. The next census will be in 2011.

Rank	City	Part	Area	Population (2001 Census)
1	London	England	1,580 km² (620 mi²)	7,172,091
2	Birmingham	England	283 km² (109 mi²)	970,892
3	Leeds	England	552 km²	715,404
4	Glasgow	Scotland	177 km² (68 mi²)	577,869
5	Sheffield	England		513,234
6	Bradford	England		467,665
7	Edinburgh	Scotland	260 km² (100 mi²)	448,624
8	Liverpool	England		439,477
9	Manchester	England		392,819
10	Bristol	England		380,615
11	Cardiff	Wales		305,353
12	Coventry	England	97 km² (37 mi²)	300,848

Source: Office for National Statistics (2001).

Population Structure

As for the age structure, the 2001 census shows that the three largest age groups are: the group of 50-55 years old (born between 1946 and 1951 during the post-World War II baby boom), 35-40 years old, and 10-15 years old. The percentages of males and females in age groups of 0-14 and 15-64 are the same: 9 per cent and 33 per cent respectively. However, due to the higher mortality of men with increasing age, males in the age group of 65+ account for only 7 per cent of the total population, while it is 9 per cent for females.

The age and gender distribution of the population in 2001 is shown below:

Age group	Population		%
	Male	Female	
0—14	5,560,489	5,293,871	18.0
15—64	20,193,876	19,736,516	66.3
65+	4,027,721	5,458,235	15.7

Source: Office for National Statistics (2001).

Ethnic Composition

In close proximity to the European continent, the United Kingdom was once subject to many invasions and migrations in history, especially from Scandinavia and the continent, including Roman occupation for several centuries. Therefore, British people are believed to be descended from the varied ethnic groups that settled in Great Britain before the 11th century; the Pre-historic, Celtic, Roman, Anglo-Saxon, Norse and the Normans. From the Middle Ages to Early Modern Period (roughly the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries), a succession of wars and conquests, separations and unions facilitated migration and intermarriage between the people of England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. As a consequence, the lands were largely inhabited by English, Scots, Irish and Welsh people. Meanwhile, considerable numbers of foreigners and refugees came to settle in Britain for economic, political or religious reasons. For instance, in the 17th century Protestant French came to Britain seeking for religious refuge; groups of African sailors immigrated to the country in the 18th century.

Since the 19th century, particularly since the World War II of the last century, substantial immigration from the Commonwealth, Europe and the rest of the world has changed the ethnic make-up in the United Kingdom. Non-whites have grown from tens of thousands in 1951 to 4.6 million in 2001. The total number of ethnic minorities (including whites from ethnic minority groups) in 2001 was 6,751,689.

After the World War II, citizens from member countries of the old British Empire and Commonwealth were granted the right of entry to Britain. Labor shortages in the 1950s also encouraged employers to recruit immigrant workers from Commonwealth countries. Consequently, large numbers of immigrants continuously arrived from the Caribbean, India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh. Many Jews arrived in Britain toward the end of the 19th century. Meanwhile, large numbers of other European refugees settled in the country. The large immigrant communities from the West Indies and South Asia date from the 1950s and 1960s. There are also substantial groups of Americans, Australians, and Chinese, as well as various other Europeans, such as Greeks, Russians, Poles, Serbs, Estonians,

Latvians, Armenians, Turkish Cypriots, Italians, and Spaniards. Beginning in the early 1970s, Ugandan Asians (expelled by Idi Amin) and immigrants from Latin America, Southeast Asia, and Sri Lanka have sought refuge in Britain. These immigrations have greatly added to the ethnic diversity in the UK. Today, the number of non-whites living in the country has increased from 0.2 per cent of the population (about 75-100,000) in 1945 to about 7.9 per cent of the population (about 4.7 million).

The average number of immigrants coming from other EU member states every year grew from 71,000 to 89, 000 during the 1990s. Generally speaking, people come to Britain in search of better economic opportunities or improved life quality. Since the EU enlargement in 2004, the number of workers from Eastern Europe in the UK has increased dramatically. Immigrants from the ten new member states of the EU constituted an estimated 80 per cent of the increase in net inflows to Britain in 2003-04. The largest single inflow of immigrants came from Poland with 57,000 arriving in 2005.

According to the findings in the 2001 British Census, over 92 per cent of the population was classified as white; therefore, it is safe to say that the UK today is still a predominantly white nation. Nearly 8 per cent of the population (about 5 million people) belongs to an ethnic minority. Indians, the largest ethnic minority group in the UK, made up 1.8 per cent of the total population. Pakistanis ranked the second, accounting for 1.3 per cent of the total population; Caribbeans, 1 per cent; Africans, 0.8 per cent; Bangladeshis, 0.5 per cent and Chinese, 0.4 per cent.

Most of ethnic minority groups reside in urban and industrial areas, especially in major cities of England such as London, Birmingham, Coventry, Manchester, Leicester etc. According to a survey in 2005, more than 50 non-indigenous communities with a population of more than 10,000 live in London. And in 2008, 40 per cent of London's total population was from an ethnic minority group. In addition, almost 50 per cent of all the people of ethnic minority origin in the UK live in Greater London; 27.1 per cent of Greater London's population was born outside the UK shown by the 2001 census.

Pakistani population mainly concentrates in West Midlands, Greater London, Yorkshire and the North West, with Birmingham having the largest population of 105,000 in 2005. In comparison, Chinese population of over 400,000 in 2006 is more widespread. Chinese communities can be found in a number of major cities including London, Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, Newcastle, Sheffield, Belfast and Aberdeen. Scotland and Northern Ireland have much fewer people from ethnic minorities.

Since 1960s and 1970s, a series of laws, including The Race Relations Act of 1976, have been made to protect the rights of ethnic minority groups in the UK, which make it illegal to discriminate against anyone on the basis of race. And the Commission for Racial Equality is the organization to which anyone who felt that they had been the target of discrimination could appeal. Though the social atmosphere in the United Kingdom is generally stable and peaceful, there are occasional incidents of racial unrest and conflict, especially in crowded and impoverished urban neighborhood. In April 1993, a black teenager named Stephen Lawrence was beaten to death by a group of white teenagers in south-east London. This incident led to the passage of 1998 legislation, which introduces new assault, harassment and public-order offenses and applies higher penalties if those offenses are race-related. Tensions heightened again in July 2005 after four young British Muslims carried out the suicide bombings of three underground trains and a bus in London. Though the bombings were linked to Britain's participation in the US-Iraq War, there were calls for a tightening of British immigration policy.

Language

Different from many countries, the United Kingdom does not have a constitutionally defined official language. The dominant language is English, for it is spoken as a first language by 95 per cent of the population.

And English is spoken quite differently in different parts of the UK and there are also differences noted in the language spoken by different socio-economic groups in any particular region. The major categories are as such: English English (which refers to the English spoken in England and can be subdivided into Southern English, Midlands English and Northern English dialects), Scottish English, Welsh English and Irish English.

A mixture of the Midland and Southern English dialects spoken in London during the Middle Ages has developed into the so-called "Received Standard"—a form of English most frequently associated with educated speakers. Its accent is called Received Pronunciation (RP). It is also called as "the Queen's (King's) English", "Public School English", or "BBC English", since it was the dominant form of English used on radio and television. However, only about two per cent of British speak RP, and even BBC news broadcasters today speak with regional accents.

In England alone, many places have their own distinctive accents. The accent spoken in the east end of London is called "Cockney"; Bristol and Birmingham have different accents of their own; Liverpool has its unique accent called the "Scouse"; Manchester has "Mancunian" accent; and Newcastle's accent is called "Geordie", just to name a few.

Other major languages in the United Kingdom include Scots, Welsh, Scottish Gaelic, and Irish. Scots (also called Lowland Scots), an Anglic language descended from old English, is spoken by around 1.5 million people in Scotland and 30,000 in Northern Ireland, where it is called Ulster Scots.

Welsh, descended from one branch of Celtic language, is spoken in Wales and some parts of England. The 2001 census indicates that about 21 per cent of the Welsh population (582,400) were able to speak Welsh and 16 per cent (457,946) could speak, read and write in Welsh. And it is estimated that there are about 133,000 Welsh speakers in England, most of whom live in Greater London and the border area. As a living language, Welsh is frequently used in conversation and seen throughout Wales. Since 2000, the teaching of Welsh for all the students up to age 16 has been made compulsory in all schools. The Welsh language television channel-S4C and the BBC's Welsh language radio station play an important role in promoting the use of the language.

Scottish Gaelic derives from the same branch of Gaelic language as Irish, yet a different branch from Wales. As a spoken language, it is on the decline, with about 60,000 speakers. Most of these live in the Hebrides and Skye, islands off Scotland's west coast. Irish is spoken by about 106,844 speakers, and about 8 per cent of the population in Northern Ireland are able to speak and use Irish.

Glossary

glacier 冰河，冰川
latitude 纬度
longitude 经度
rolling 绵延起伏的，不平的
elevation 海拔，高度
chalk（地质）白垩
cambrian（地质）寒武纪的
granite 花岗岩
moorland 高沼地
meadowland 草地，牧场
pasture 草地，牧场，山坡
woodland 林区，林地
Scafell Pike 斯可斐峰
spine 脊椎，脊柱
desolate 荒凉的
feature 以……为特色，为特征
picturesque 景色优美的
terrain 地势，地形
barren 土地贫瘠的
hollows 凹陷，洼地
peat 泥炭，泥煤
bogs 沼泽地区
basalt 玄武岩（一种深色火山岩）
lough（爱尔兰）湖
plateau 高原
glen（苏格兰）峡谷
loch（苏格兰）湖
outlet 出水口，河口
boast 拥有（值得自豪的东西）
discharge（水，液体）流，流出
inlet（湖，海深向陆地或岛屿间的）水湾
indented 参差不齐的
sea loch 海湾
submerged 被淹没的
steep 陡的，陡峭的
firth（苏格兰）狭长海湾，河流入海口
rugged 崎岖的，凹凸不平的
striking 引人注目的，不同寻常的
temperate 气候温和的，温带的
proximity 邻近，接近
tropical 热带的
maritime 海洋的
airstream 气流
precipitation 降水，降水量
prolonged 持久的，长期的
spell 一段时间
deposit 沉积物，沉积层
deplete 大量减少，耗尽
generate 产生，引起
geothermal 地热的
relief 地势，地形
notorious 恶名昭著的
nitrogen oxide 氮氧化物
sulphur dioxide 二氧化硫
carbon monoxide 一氧化碳
carbon dioxide 二氧化碳
census 人口普查，人口统计
density 密度
mortality 死亡数量
facilitate 促进，促使
migration 迁徙，迁移
intermarriage（不同种族，民族，国家或教派间的）通婚
Pole 波兰人
Serb 塞尔维亚人
Estonian 爱沙尼亚人
Latvian 拉脱维亚人
Armenian 亚美尼亚人
Cypriot 塞浦路斯人
Spaniard 西班牙人
refuge 庇护，避难
predominantly 主要地
impoverished 贫困的，贫穷的
assault 侵犯他人身体，攻击
harassment 侵扰，骚扰
offense 违法行为，犯罪
penalties 刑罚，处罚
heighten 增加，提高

Cultural Notes

1. **The British Isles** the geographic name for the group of Islands off the North West coast of Europe which includes Great Britain, the largest island, Ireland and over 1000 smaller islands.
2. **Ice Age** (also called Glacial Age) refers to any geologic period, during which thick ice sheets cover vast areas of land. Such periods of large-scale glaciations may last several million years and drastically reshape surface features of entire continents. A number of major ice ages have occurred throughout Earth history. The earliest known took place during Precambrian Time dating back more than 570 million years. The most recent periods of widespread glaciation occurred during the Pleistocene Epoch (1.8 million to 11,500 years ago).
3. **English Channel** (also called The Channel) is the narrow arm of the Atlantic Ocean separating the southern coast of England from the northern coast of France and tapering eastward to its junction with the North Sea at the Strait of Dover (French: Pas de Calais). With an area of some 29,000 square miles (75,000 sq km), it is the smallest of the shallow seas covering the continental shelf of Europe.
4. **Lake District** famous scenic region and national park in the administrative county of Cumbria, England. It occupies parts of the historic counties of Cumberland, Lancashire, and Westmorland. The national park covers an area of 866 square miles (2,243 square km). It contains the major English lakes, including the largest, Windermere, and the highest English mountains, of which the loftiest is Scafell Pike. The famous lake-strewn valleys of the region contribute to the distinctive character that makes the entire Lake District attractive to tourists.
5. **Dartmoor** wild upland area in the west of the county of Devon, southwestern England. It extends for about 23 miles (37 km) north-south and 20 miles (32 km) east-west. In 1951, it was designated a national park, covering 365 square miles (945 square km).
6. **Exmoor** high moorland in northwestern Somerset and northern Devon, England. It is also a national park covering 268 square miles (693 square km). The River Exe rises here and flows south into the English Channel. Tourism is important to the local economy, and Lynton, Lynmouth, and Porlock are the main centres.
7. **Stonehenge** an archaeological site located about 8 miles (13 km) northwest of Salisbury, in Wiltshire, England. It was estimated to have been built in prehistoric times at about 3100 BC. It is a monumental circular setting of large standing stones surrounded by an earthwork.
8. **The Peak District** refers to the hill area in the county of Derbyshire, England, forming the southern end of the Pennines. The Peak District National Park was formed in 1950-51 with an area of 542 square miles (1,404 sq km), which includes parts of Cheshire, Derbyshire, Staffordshire, and South Yorkshire.
9. **Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty** (**AONB**) is an area of countryside considered to have significant landscape value in England, Wales or Northern Ireland. It is specially designated by the Countryside Agency (now Natural England) on behalf of the United Kingdom government, the Countryside Council for Wales on behalf of the Welsh Assembly Government, or the Northern Ireland Environment Agency on behalf of the Northern Ireland Executive.

10. **National Scenic Area (NSA)** is a conservation designation used in Scotland, and currently administered by Scottish Natural Heritage. NSAs are defined as having outstanding scenic interest or unsurpassed attractiveness.
11. **Giant's Causeway** is an area of about 40,000 interlocking basalt columns. It is located in County Antrim, on the northeast coast of Northern Ireland. It was declared a World Heritage Site by UNESCO in 1986, and a National Nature Reserve in 1987 by the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland. In a 2005 poll of Radio Times readers, the Giant's Causeway was named as the fourth greatest natural wonder in the United Kingdom.
12. **Greater London** refers to the top-level administrative subdivision covering London, England. It covers the City of London and thirty two London boroughs, with an area of 1,579 sq km (609 square mi). It adjoins the Home Counties of Essex and Hertfordshire in the East of England and Buckinghamshire, Berkshire, Surrey and Kent in South-East England.
13. **Anglic language** (also called The English languages) refers to a group of linguistic varieties including Old English and the languages descended from it. These include Middle English, Early Modern English, and Modern English; Early Scots, Middle Scots, and Modern Scots; and the now extinct Yola and Fingalian in Ireland.

Questions for Discussion

1. What countries comprise the UK? What is the full name of the UK?
2. What're the differences among Great Britain, British Isles, and the United Kingdom?
3. What are the topographical features of each of the four countries in the UK?
4. What are the major lakes and rivers in the UK?
5. Talk about the environment and natural resources in the UK.
6. What is the total population of the United Kingdom? Where do most people live?
7. Give a brief introduction to the ethnic composition in Britain.
8. What are the major languages spoken in the UK?

Supplementary Reading

Four Countries and Their National Identity

The relationship among the four countries in the United Kingdom has always been complicated. The memories of how England gained control over the three others in history have not gone far. Today though England still holds the dominance in culture, economy and politics, there are efforts to protect and revive the minority cultures. In spite of the existence of a "United" Kingdom, regionalism and distinct national identity of each of the four countries should not be overlooked.

Wales was brought under English rule in 1282 by the English King Edward I, who later declared his son Edward II the first English Prince of Wales in 1285 (This has become a tradition kept until now: the eldest son of the reigning monarch bears this title). The 1536 Act of Union joined England and Wales. As

a consequence, its early political institutions and processes developed along English lines, and the two countries today have the same legal and administrative systems.

Scotland has a different story: the Scottish and English monarchies were united in 1603; the 1707 Act of Union united Scotland and England, which created the new state of Great Britain. However, the two countries maintained many separate features, including different religions, different legal systems and education systems.

In 1801, Ireland was united with Great Britain. The national vote of 1921 offered the people of Ireland the choice between independence, self-rule, and remaining part of Britain. As a result, six northern counties remain part of Britain, thus being called Northern Ireland, while most of the southern counties chose independence. Mainly as a semi-autonomous state, Northern Ireland has its own civil service, its own political parties and its own Parliament.

There are major differences among the four countries. Firstly, each of the 4 countries has its own flag (England: Cross of St George, Scotland: Cross of St Andrew; Wales: a read dragon on a green and white field; Northern Ireland: old flag-Cross of St Patrick, the official flag now-the Union Flag of the UK), its own culture, its own writers and artists, even its own sports teams. While English, Scottish, Welsh and Northern Irish athletes at the Olympics wear the colors of Great Britain, there are separate national football and rugby teams.

Secondly, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have their own regional assemblies and political parties. A national vote was held in Scotland and Wales on a proposal to create regional assemblies. About 75 per cent of Scots voted in favor of a regional assembly, and 50.3 per cent of Welsh were in favor. Therefore, assemblies for Scotland and Wales were created in 1998, and in the following year the assembly for Northern Ireland was also re-established. Their regional political parties include the Scottish National Party (SNP), Plaid Cymru in Wales, and a group of Northern Irish parties. All have representation both in the national British Parliament and in the new regional assemblies.

In addition, Scotland and Northern Ireland have different legal and educational systems from those in England and Wales. Created in 1560, the Church of Scotland is also separate from the Church of England.

In terms of language, Wales has its own language that enjoys the equal status with English since 1993. Some 20 per cent of the population are Welsh speakers. Likewise, Northern Ireland and Scotland also have their own languages (Irish and Scottish Gaelic), though much less popular.

Given these distinct differences among the four countries, people in each country also identify themselves differently. This is because different groups of people tend to develop their own customs and way of life. National identity and citizenship are not always the same thing in the UK. Most white people born in the United Kingdom, although they are British citizens, do not regard themselves as British and prefer to state their national identity as English, Scottish, or Welsh.

England: Free-born Island People

In The *Tragedy of King Richard II*, Shakespeare gave one of the most enduring symbols of English identity—"Scepter's Isle" meaning the Island of Scepter, which signifies loyalty to royalty and the island. During the time of the Reformation, ancient English tradition of independence was highly advocated, which resulted in the physical and religious separation from Rome as well as the legal freedom of England. The idea of the "free-born Englishman" was once again shown by the claims of Parliament after the

Glorious Revolution of 1688.

According to Hans Kohn, one of the fathers of nationalism studies, England is a nation with the following characteristics: the supremacy of the law over the king; the supremacy of Parliament in law-making; the impartiality of justice; the security of individual rights; the freedom of thought and press; and religious tolerance.

In Rudyard Kipling's stories, there are stereotyped images from each of the four nations: An English officer, a little slow and rigid, but decent; A Scottish engineer, dour, but resourceful; A Welsh NCO, cunning but dependable; An Irish Squaddie, coarse, comic but courageous.

A strong sense of Englishness prevails, which is epitomized by a sense of pride and superiority. For quite some time, the Queen's English was a "badge of honor", while regional dialects were considered inferior pronunciation. Similarly, the education system became dominated by the public schools such as Eton, Harrow and Rugby, plus the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Home counties are also proud of being the "royal heartland": Lords, Twickenham and Wembley, Windsor Castle and Buckingham Palace are all located there.

The sense of superiority has been expressed as, "The rest of the world have to keep telling us how wonderful they are—like the French, Italians, or Germans, who imagine that a perfect world consists only of French, Italians, or Germans. But the English, who will mix with anybody, don't need to broadcast how good they are. They just know they're the best."

To capture the essence of the English character, we can finally turn to Prime Minister Harold Macmillan's description of the spirit of D-Day in 1945.

"Even the humblest could feel that they were taking part in the making of history. As the new Armada was being prepared against us, we seemed indeed the heirs of Queen Elizabeth and her captains. All the great figures of the past—Drake, Raleigh, Marlborough, Chatham, Wolfe, Pitt, Nelson, Wellington—seemed again alive and almost standing at our side. The unity of the nation was complete and unshakeable."

Scotland: More Civil Society, Less Community

In Scotland, there has been stronger sense of a Scottish national community than the sense of a local community. There might be exceptions such as Shetland and Orkney (Some residents there express a distinct regional identity, influenced by their Norse heritage.) and perhaps even in Glasgow, where a sense of regional identity is retained alongside the idea of a Scottish national identity. But generally speaking, Scotland has maintained a strong civil society, which is the area of social structure between the family and the state.

Since 1707 and the Union of Parliament with England, Scotland has structured its national identity around its religion, its legal system and its education system. Kirk, law and education were instituted differently from their English counterparts, and have remained more than merely cultural icons. The Church of Scotland, a Presbyterian church with no bishops, has 42.4% of Scottish population as its believers (based on 2001 census). The Scottish legal system has a separate and unique legal jurisdiction based on Roman law, not common law. Its own particular features include the verdict "not proven". The Scottish education system adopts a wider and more general curriculum. For instance, four-year general degree is conferred at the university level, which requires one more year of study in Scottish universities

than in English ones.

Politically, Scotland seems to need different political solutions from its southern neighbour as well. The Scottish National Party(SNP) came to political prominence in 1967, and from then on Scottish issues were seen as separate from those of the United Kingdom. The SNP could capture the "Scottish agenda" very easily, because it was effectively free from the electoral heartlands which sustained the Labour and the Conservative parties.

In September 1997, exactly 700 years to the date after the Scottish patriot William Wallace defeated the English at the Battle of Stirling Bridge, Scotland voted for a developed parliament with tax-raising powers, and with the Secretary of State for Scotland losing his or her full status in the British Cabinet and a reduction of Scottish MPs at Westminster.

Identity	National Identity in Scotland from 1997—2003			
	1997	1999	2001	2003
Scottish not British	23	32	36	31
More Scottish than British	38	35	30	34
Equally Scottish and British	27	22	24	22
More British than Scottish	4	3	3	4
British not Scottish	4	4	3	4

Wales: A Fused Identity

Welsh national identity has been strong culturally, but rather weak politically. In contrast to both Scotland and Northern Ireland, Wales does not have a strong institutional basis to its civil society. As a result of its literary renaissance of the eighteenth century, Welsh life was pervasive in folklore and poetry.

In the 1880s, many influential Welsh-language chapels served as assemblies for the people. The Welsh language remained as a medium of daily communication among local people, far more so than the languages of Ireland and Scotland. However, the use of Welsh language was slowly undermined for economic and political causes. In the first decade of the twentieth century, the Welsh coalfields attracted 129,000 workers, mainly from England and speaking English. At the same time, the government discouraged Welsh speaking. The strongest example is banning the speaking of Welsh in the classroom. This played a large part in the decline of the Welsh language, and in the actual number of Welsh speakers. In 1901, 51 per cent of the people in Wales spoke Welsh but by 1971 this had dropped to 21 per cent, mainly in the rural areas of North and West Wales.

The rise of religious nonconformity, through the Methodists, Independents and Baptists, in the early to mid-nineteenth century could be seen as part of the growth of national consciousness.

Politically, the Welsh national party Plaid Cymru (PC) formed in 1925 and put great stress on defending Welsh language and culture; however, its influence was mainly confined to the Welsh-speaking areas. The industrial society of south Wales was more closely linked by its economic ties with England and fostered an English-dominated cosmopolitan popular culture.

Welsh finally gained equal status with English under the Welsh Language Act of 1967; the establishment of a Welsh fourth television channel, S4C, in 1982 also helped sustain a sense of Welshness. Since the 1980s, it has become compulsory for all public signs and government literature to be bilingual in Wales; there have also been many more Welsh schools set up and Welsh streams in English speaking schools. A greater political confidence in Welsh national identity can be seen in the 1997 referendum for a Welsh regional assembly; 50.3 per cent in favour and 49.7 per cent against, which, on the other hand, also indicates a strong identification with Britishness.

	Trends in National Identity in Great Britain						
	1974	1978—9	1991—2	1996—7	1999	2001	2003
England							
English			31	34	44	43	38
British			63	59	44	44	48
Scotland							
Scottish	65	56	72	72	77	77	72
British	31	38	25	20	17	16	20
Wales							
Welsh		59		63	57	57	60
British		34		26	31	31	27

Northern Ireland: Conflicting Identities

The rich Scots-Irish brogue of Northern Ireland is unmistakable. The planting of Scottish Protestant settlements and their Presbyterian culture among the indigenous Catholic population was always going to be problematic, as history has shown. The Troubles, as they are called, continue to be a burning political issue.

There is a split culture in Northern Ireland, originating from those associated with the Protestant tradition (mainly Anglicans descended from the English settlers and Presbyterians from the Scottish settlers), who consider themselves British, and those associated with the Catholic tradition who consider themselves Irish. The two groups have a profoundly different mind-set.

The Catholics remember their land being taken over by English and Scottish farmers setting up plantation towns, where the rights of Irish tenant farmers were removed.

The Protestants remember the Battle of the Boyne, the 12th of July, and the Siege of Derry with the slogan of 'No Surrender'.

Key events in history marked the conflicting identities of the Northern Ireland.

The Orange Order takes its name from King William of Orange who defeated the Catholic forces under James II at the Battle of the Boyne in 1690.

The formation of Young Ireland in the 1840s: the Nation newspaper gained a readership of around 250,000 at its peak in 1843.

In 1858 Fenianism was formally constituted as the Irish Republican Brotherhood, partly out of the anti-English sections of Young Ireland. It was supported strongly in the United States. The name "Fenians" was taken from the legendary warrior order of pre-Christian Ireland.

Clan na Gael was a counter-reaction to this, and it started the movements towards full independence.

The Irish Republican Army (IRA) was formed, following the Easter Rising of 1916.

Sinn Fein was founded in 1902; in 1938 it became the political arm of the IRA.

Between the 1880s and 1921 British governments made successive attempts to solve the Irish problem by some form of the Home Rule. The partition of Ireland created the Irish Free State on 1st January 1992.

British troops were first stationed in Northern Ireland in 1969.

The Anglo-Irish Agreement of 1985 was to foster cooperation between Britain and Ireland on security and government in the North.

The Downing Street Declaration (1993) was the British government's wish to enable "the people of Ireland to reach an agreement on how they may live together in harmony".

In 1998 the Northern Ireland Assembly with full legal and executive powers was established in response to the Good Friday Agreement and as part of the British government's devolution program. In addition, it was agreed that a change to the Republic's constitution would be made, accepting that Northern Ireland will remain part of the UK for as long as the majority desire it.

Further Reading

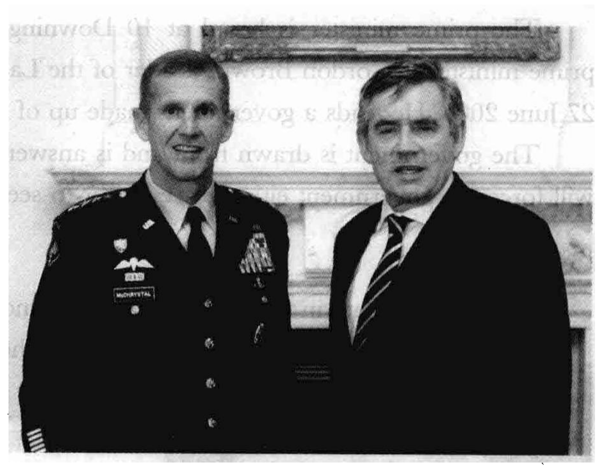
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Chapter 2

The British Government



导读 Introduction

英国的国家形式是君主立宪制，理论上国家权力的最高拥有者是国王，政府正式名称为"国王政府"。今天，英国的国王是伊丽莎白二世女王。在日常的政治生活中国王只拥有象征性的地位，承担国家元首等礼仪性职责，其权力受到惯例和民意的约束；真正掌握国家权力的是内阁首相。首相为政府首脑，按照惯例首相必须是下议院中最有可能获得下议院多数支持的议员，由国王任命。首相被任命后由其挑选大约20名最资深的政府部长和首相本人组成内阁。内阁是国家最高行政机关，从议会产生，并对议会负责。国王按内阁的意志行使形式上的权力。

议会是英国政治的中心舞台，它是最高立法机关，政府就是从议会中产生，并对其负责；英国的议会为两院制，由上议院和下议院组成。除了位于伦敦的英国上议院外，现在苏格兰、威尔士和北爱尔兰都拥有自己的议会及政府。虽然这些二级政府拥有部分立法等方面的权限，他们的权力还是无法足够大到能与英国议会抗衡，三个地方议会之间的权限大小也各不相同。

英国的政府部门主要包括：财务部，内务部，外交部，国防部等，主要负责政策的实行。公共服务机构是政治中立的组织，协助政府处理行政事务。本章主要从以上各方面介绍英国政府。

Britain is a parliamentary democracy with a constitutional monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II, who is head of state. The British constitution is not written in a single document. Instead it consists of a combination of laws and practices which are not legally enforceable, but which are regarded essential to the working of government. This system of government is known as the Westminster system.

A Logo of Her Majesty's Government

British government is often referred to as Her Majesty's Government, which is the central government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The monarch appoints a prime minister as the head of Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom. About the appointment, there is a strict convention that the prime minister should be the member of the House of

Commons who is most likely to be able to form a government with the support of that House. In practice, this means that the leader of the political party with an absolute majority of seats in the House of Commons is selected to be the prime minister. As the head of government, the prime minister then selects the other ministers who make up the government and act as political heads of the various government departments. In practice, their appointment is confirmed by the Queen. About twenty of the most senior government ministers make up the Cabinet and approximately 100 ministers in total comprise the government.

The prime minister is based at 10 Downing Street, which is located in Westminster. The current prime minister is Gordon Brown, leader of the Labour Party. He was appointed by Queen Elizabeth II on 27 June 2007. He leads a government made up of 127 ministers, who are mostly Labour Party MPs.

The government is drawn from and is answerable to Parliament — a successful vote of no confidence will force the government either to resign or to seek a parliamentary dissolution and a general election.

Monarch

The head of state in the UK is the British monarch, currently Queen Elizabeth II. The Queen is not only the head of state, but also an important symbol of national unity. Her complete official royal title is "Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith", but she is usually referred to as Her Royal Highness or Queen Elizabeth.



Queen Elizabeth II, the current monarch of the United Kingdom

Historically, the British monarch directly exercised all executive powers in the UK government. However, since the English Bill of Rights in 1689, the power the monarch can exercise became less than before. During the early 18th century, the role of prime minister in fact became more and more important as an executive authority by directly exercising executive powers and collectively consulting with other members of his/her Cabinet. Thus, the real power of the monarch has been steadily reduced over the years. Nevertheless, the monarch is still regarded as the sovereign.

The British sovereign has many powers, including the right to choose any British citizen to be her prime minister and the right to call and dissolve Parliament whenever she wishes. However, in practice, the prime minister is the leader of the largest party in the House of Commons, and Parliament is dissolved at the time suggested by the PM. For a bill to become law the monarch has to grant Royal Assent. Other royal powers called royal prerogative, such as patronage to appoint ministers and the ability to declare war, are used by the prime minister and the Cabinet, with the formal permission of the Queen.

Today the sovereign has a ceremonial role which is affected by convention and public opinion. However the monarch does continue to exercise three essential rights: the right to be consulted, the right to advise and the right to warn. For that reason, prime ministers have weekly confidential meetings with

the monarch in which the monarch holds the right to express her opinions.

Although the monarch exercises less executive powers today, the position of the monarch in the British constitution should not be underestimated. The monarch does indeed hold some power. For instance, when a law threatened the freedom or security of her subjects and citizens, the Queen could refuse to give her royal assent. What's more, it would be difficult if Parliament or government wants to remove her from her position by arms, as the monarch remains commander-in-chief of the armed forces, who swear strong loyalty to her.

The Prime Minister

The prime minister of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is the political leader of the United Kingdom and the head of Her Majesty's Government.

The prime minister, as its name implies, is the prime or senior minister in the Cabinet. The prime minister is also, by tradition, First Lord of the Treasury and Minister for the Civil Service. As the Head of Her Majesty's Government, the prime minister has a unique position of authority in the UK government: he/she leads a major political party, holds an absolute majority of seats in the House of Commons, and is the leader of the Cabinet.

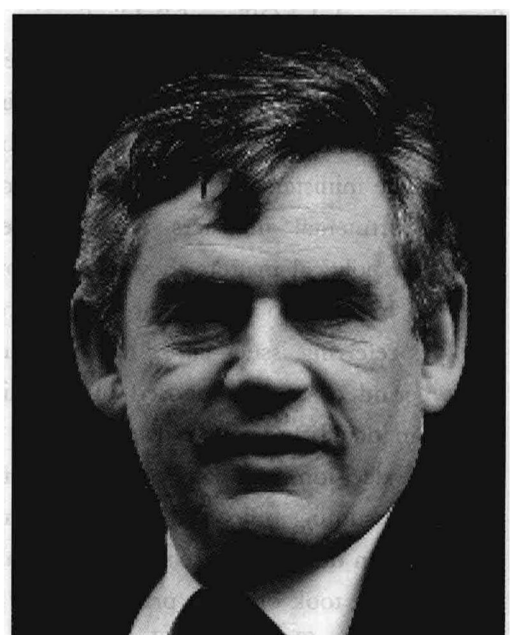
The prime minister's responsibilities are: to select Cabinet ministers; to preside over the Cabinet; to allocate the functions among ministers; to formulate governmental policy; to inform the Queen at weekly confidential meetings of the general business of the government. The prime minister's other responsibilities include recommending a number of appointments to the Queen. These include:

1. Church of England archbishops, bishops and other Church appointments;
2. Senior judges, such as the Lord Chief Justice;
3. Privy Counselors;
4. Lord-Lieutenants.

They also include certain civil appointments, such as Lord High Commissioner to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, Poet Laureate, Constable of the Tower, and some university posts; and appointments to various public boards and institutions, such as the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), as well as various royal and statutory commissions. The prime minister also makes recommendations for the award of many civil honors and distinctions.

Theoretically, the prime minister is "first among equals" among his/her Cabinet colleagues. While the prime minister is the senior Cabinet minister, he/she is theoretically bound to make executive decisions in a collective fashion with the other Cabinet ministers.

The former prime minister is Gordon Brown, leader of the Labour Party. He took his office on 27 June 2007. The prime minister's office is located at 10 Downing Street, the official residence in London. The prime minister



Gordon Brown, the former British Prime Minister

also has a staff of civil servants who give assistance to the prime minister.

The Cabinet

In the politics of the United Kingdom, the Cabinet is the collective decision-making body of Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom. It consists of about 20 senior government ministers, although the number can change. Cabinet ministers are selected mainly from the elected members of House of Commons, but also from the House of Lords by the monarch, on the advice of prime minister. Cabinet ministers are heads of government departments, mostly with the title "Secretary of State". In practice, all the Secretaries of State have the same power. The Cabinet has always been led by the prime minister, whose position was once described as first among equals, but today is more like the head of government. The change of the composition of the Cabinet is referred to as a reshuffle, which usually takes place in summer.

The functions of the Cabinet are to initiate and decide on policy, the supreme control of government and the co-ordination of government departments. The exercise of these functions is greatly affected by the fact that the Cabinet is a group of party representatives, thus they have the majority support in the House of Commons.

For a long period of time, Cabinet met on Thursdays. Then when Gordon Brown became prime minister in June 2007, the meeting day was changed from Thursday to Tuesday. The meeting is in private and its proceedings are confidential. Its members have obligation not to disclose information about its proceedings, although after 30 years Cabinet members may be made available for inspection in the Public Record Office at Kew, Surrey.

Normally the Cabinet members have a weekly meeting for a few hours when Parliament is in session. But when Parliament is not sitting, they will not have meetings quite often.

The Cabinet Office is directed by the Secretary of the Cabinet, a senior civil servant who is also Head of the Home Civil Service, under the direction of the prime minister. It consists of the Cabinet Secretariat and the Office of Public Service and Science (OPSS).

The Cabinet acts without dissent even when Cabinet ministers do not all agree on a subject. The policy of departmental ministers must be in accordance with the policy of the government as a whole. If the government's policy on a matter has been decided, each minister has no choice but to support it or resign. The ministers are answerable to Parliament for all the work of their departments.

Departmental ministers normally decide all matters within their responsibility. However, on important political matters they usually consult and discuss with their colleagues collectively through the Cabinet. In order to make their work more efficient, they usually resort to the committee system, which involves referring issues either to a standing Cabinet committee or to an ad hoc committee set up for a short period of time composed of the ministers directly concerned. The committee then considers the matter in detail and either disposes of it or reports upon it to the Cabinet with recommendations for action. A decision by a departmental minister binds the government as a whole.

On assuming office ministers must ensure that they have already abandoned their private interests and they can devote themselves to their public duties whole heartedly.

After he took office as prime minister, Gordon Brown announced his first Cabinet on 28 June 2007. The latest reshuffle was on 5 June 2009.

Parliament

The British Parliament is the supreme legislative institution in the United Kingdom and British overseas territories. The Parliament is bicameral. It is made up of the House of Commons, the House of Lords and the Queen in her constitutional role. The two houses meet in separate chambers in the Palace of Westminster in the City of Westminster in London. They meet together only on some important occasions, such as the state opening of parliament, when the Commons are summoned by the Queen to the House of Lords. There is also a devolved Scottish Parliament and devolved Assemblies in Wales and Northern Ireland, with different degrees of legislative authority.

The main functions of Parliament are: to examine government policy and administration; to examine, debate and approve new laws; to hold the power to set taxes and debate the major issues of the day.



Parliament

A Parliament has a maximum term of five years, but in practice general elections are usually held before the end of this term. The term has been made longer by legislation in rare circumstances such as the two world wars. Parliament is dissolved and writs for a general election are ordered by the Queen on the advice of the prime minister.

The life of a Parliament is divided into sessions. Each usually lasts for one year-normally beginning and ending in October or November. There are "adjournments" at night, at weekends, at Christmas, Easter and the late Spring Bank Holiday, and during a long summer break usually starting in late July. The average number of "sitting" days in a session is about 160 in the House of Commons and about 145 in the House of Lords. At the start of each session the Queen's speech to Parliament outlines the government's policies and proposed legislative program. Each session is ended by prorogation. Parliament then "stands prorogued" for about a week until the new session opens. Public Bills which have not been passed by the end of the session are lost.

House of Lords

The House of Lords is the upper house, but the Second chamber, of the Parliament of the United Kingdom and is also commonly referred to as "the Lords". The full, formal title of the House of Lords is "The Right Honourable the Lords Spiritual and Temporal of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland in Parliament assembled".

The Lords Chamber is lavishly decorated, in contrast with the more modestly furnished Commons Chamber. Benches in the Lords Chamber are coloured red; thus, the House of Lords is sometimes referred to as the "Red Chamber". The woolsack is at the front of the Chamber. The right side of the woolsack is for the supporters of the government of the day, while the left side is occupied by members of the Opposition. Neutral members, known as Cross-benchers, sit on the benches immediately opposite the woolsack.

The House of Lords formerly only consisted of many hereditary aristocrats, including life peers and Lords Spiritual. However, it is now more mid-way following a series of reforms. The most recent of the reforms was enacted in the House of Lords Act 1999.

The House of Lords does not have a fixed number of members. Currently it is made up of two very different types of members, the Lords Temporal and Lords Spiritual. Lords Temporal include appointed members and ninety-two remaining hereditary peer. The majority of the members are appointed by the sovereign on advice of the prime minister. The Lords Spiritual, also called Spiritual Peers, are the 26 bishops of the established Church of England. The House of Lords is presided over by the Lord Speaker. The Lord Speaker has little power compared to the Speaker of the House of Commons. He/she only acts as the mouthpiece of the House, performing duties such as announcing the results of votes.

The main function of the House of Lords is to review legislation raised by the House of Commons. Members are involved throughout the process of proposing, revising and amending legislation. While at the same time it has power to present amendments and can also exercise a suspensive veto. That is to say, if the House of Lords does not approve the legislation for twelve months, it will delay legislation. However, the House of Lords cannot use the power of veto too often as the use of vetoes is limited by convention and by the operation of the Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949. Under the 1911 act, all bills specified by the speaker of the House of Commons as money bills (involving taxation or expenditures) become law one month after being sent for consideration to the House of Lords, with or without the consent of that house. Under the 1949 act, all other public bills (except bills to extend the maximum duration of Parliament) not receiving the approval of the House of Lords become law provided that they are passed by two successive parliamentary sessions and that a period of one year has elapsed between the bill's second reading in the first session and its third reading in the second session.

House of Commons

The House of Commons is the lower house of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. The full, formal style and title of the House of Commons is "The Honourable the Commons of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland in Parliament assembled".

The countries of the United Kingdom are divided into 646 parliamentary constituencies. The number of constituencies will increase from the current 646 to 650 at the 2010 general election. Each constituency elects one Member of Parliament (MP) to the House of Commons at General Elections. The candidate who gets the most votes becomes the MP for that area until the next election. This is called the "first past the post" system of election. If an MP dies or resigns, or is given a peerage, a by-election takes place. The term "Member of Parliament" is normally used only to refer to Members of the House of Commons, even though the House of Lords is also a part of Parliament.

The Commons chamber is small and modestly decorated in green, in contrast with the large, lavishly furnished red Lords chamber. There are benches on two sides of the chamber, divided by a centre aisle. Mps sit on two sides of the hall. One side is for the governing party and the other is for the Opposition. The first 2 rows of seats are for the leading members of both parties, which are called front benches. The back benches belong to their supporting members respectively. Each session of the House of Commons lasts for 160-175 days.

Nowadays, all prime ministers and Leaders of the Opposition are from the Commons, not the Lords, such as Alec Douglas-Home who resigned from his peerages days after becoming prime minister in 1963 and the prime minister Marquess of Salisbury who left the Lords in 1902.

Under normal conditions, the monarch asks a person most likely to command the support of a

majority in the House, normally the leader of the largest party in the House of Commons, to form a government. If this person can win the absolute majority votes in the House of Commons, the government then can be formed. Under exceptional circumstances, if no one can win the majority votes, thus a coalition government will be formed. This kind of thing will only happen at a time of national emergency, such as war-time. The House of Commons is directly responsible to the electorate.

The chief officer of the House of Commons is the Speaker, elected by MPs to preside over the House. The Speaker is assisted by three Deputy Speakers. The Speaker and the three Deputy Speakers are always members of the House of Commons. They are elected by the House on the nomination of the government but may come from the Opposition as well as the government party.



Parliament meets at the Palace of Westminster

Devolved National Legislatures

There are three devolved institutions in UK, which are elected by proportional representation: the additional member system is used in Scotland and Wales, and single transferable vote is used in Northern Ireland. England, therefore, is the only country in the UK not to have a devolved English parliament.

Scottish Parliament

The Scottish Parliament is the national, unicameral legislature of Scotland, which is located in the Holyrood area of the capital Edinburgh. The Parliament consists of 129 members who are known as Members of the Scottish Parliament, or MSPs. Members are elected for four-year terms under the mixed member proportional representation system.

The current Scottish Parliament was established by the Scotland Act 1998 and its first meeting as a devolved legislature was on 12 May 1999. The matters over which it has responsibility include education, health, agriculture and justice. Matters concerning domestic authority and all foreign policy will be determined by the UK Parliament in Westminster.

Welsh Assembly

The National Assembly for Wales is a devolved assembly with power to make legislation in Wales, and is also responsible for Welsh Assembly Government departments in Wales. The Assembly was formed under the Government of Wales Act 1998, by the Labour government.

Northern Ireland Assembly

The current government of Northern Ireland was established as a result of the 1998 Good Friday Agreement. After that Northern Ireland Assembly was formed. The Assembly is a unicameral body and it is made up of 108 members elected under the single transferable vote form of proportional representation. The Assembly is based on the principle of power-sharing, in order to balance the powers of the two communities in Northern Ireland, unionist and nationalist, to make them participate in government business equally. It is located at Parliament Buildings at Stormont in Belfast.

Government Departments

Government departments and their agencies are the main institutions for carrying out government policy when Parliament has passed the necessary legislation and for giving suggestions to ministers. The staff members of the government departments and their agencies are politically neutral civil servants. They often work alongside local authorities, statutory boards, and government-sponsored organizations operating under various degrees of government control.

A change of government does not necessarily affect the number or general functions of government departments, although major changes in policy may bring about organizational changes.

The work of some departments, for instance, the Ministry of Defence — covers Britain as a whole. Other departments, such as the Department of Social Security, cover England, Wales and Scotland, but not Northern Ireland. Others, such as the Department of the Environment, mainly focus on England.

Departments are usually headed by ministers, who are often referred to as "Secretary of State" and members of the Cabinet. The ministers may also be supported by a number of junior ministers. In some departments the head is a permanent official, and ministers with other duties are responsible for them to Parliament. For instance, ministers in the Treasury are responsible for HM Customs and Excise, the Inland Revenue, the National Investment and Loans Office and a number of other departments as well as executive agencies such as the Royal Mint. Departments generally receive their funds directly out of money provided by Parliament and are staffed by members of the Civil Service.

Civil Service

Civil service is a permanent politically neutral organization which will carry out Minister's decisions. Its constitutional role is to support the Government of the day no matter which political party is in power. Unlike some other democracies, senior civil servants remain in their position even when a change of government takes place.

"Whitehall" is often used as a synonym for the central core of the Civil Service. This is because most government departments have headquarters in and around the former Royal Palace Whitehall.

Civil servants are employees of the crown and not parliament. In this context, the crown means and is represented by, the government of the day. Under most circumstances the executive powers of the crown are exercised by Her Majesty's Ministers, who will also give the crown advice. In turn, Her Majesty's Ministers are answerable to Parliament. The duty of the individual civil servant is first and foremost to the Minister of the crown who is in charge of the department concerned. Once the minister is changed, the staff members of the civil servants will not change. Civil servants are not involved in the business of the ministers' party political work and do not normally attend meetings arranged by the governing party.

Due to the government's policy of controlling the cost of the Civil Service and of improving its efficiency, the number of civil servants reduced from 732,000 in April 1979 to 533,350 in April 1994. About half of all civil servants are working at the provision of public services, which include paying incapacity benefits and pensions, collecting taxes and contributions, running employment services, staffing prisons, and providing services to industry and agriculture. One fifth of the civil servants are employed in the Ministry of Defence. The rest of them are distributed among: central administrative and policy duties; support services; and largely financially self supporting services. Four-fifths of civil servants

work outside London.

The government has always been making efforts to achieve equality of opportunity for its staff members. For this reason, the Civil Service is making policies to create more working opportunities for women, ethnic minorities and people with disabilities. The number of ethnic minority staff has been in proportion to, or better than, their representation in the working population since the Civil Service began ethnic monitoring in 1989.

Non-Departmental Public Bodies

There are four types of non-departmental public bodies: executive bodies, advisory bodies, tribunals and independent monitoring boards. Although they are not government departments or parts of a department, they have also contributed a lot to the running of national government.

Executive bodies normally have their own staff members and make their own budget. They are public organizations whose duties are executive, administrative, regulatory or commercial functions. In practice, they are guided by the guidelines set up by the departmental minister. Examples of executive bodies include the British Council, the Legal Aid Board, the Commonwealth Development Corporation and the Commission for Racial Equality.

Advisory bodies consist of boards which advise ministers on particular policy areas. They are often supported by a small secretariat from the parent department and any expenditure is paid for by that department. Examples include the British Overseas Trade Board and the Theatres Trust.

Tribunal bodies have jurisdiction in an area of the law. They are co-ordinated by the Tribunals Service, an executive agency of the Ministry of Justice, and supervised by the Administrative Justice and Tribunals Council. It is sponsored by the Ministry of Justice.

Independent monitoring boards were formerly known as "boards of visitors" and are responsible for the state of prisons, their administration and the treatment of prisoners. The Home Office is responsible for their costs, and has to note all expenses.

Devolved National Administrations/Governments

Since 1998, the UK central government has given certain powers to devolved governments in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland with the purpose that they can make decisions for own areas. However, there is no devolved government in England.

Scottish Government

The Scottish government was established in 1999 as the Scottish Executive. After the 2007 Scottish Parliament election, the term Executive was changed to government. The Scottish government is responsible for all issues that are not explicitly reserved to the United Kingdom Parliament at Westminster, by the Scotland Act. The issues include health, education, justice, rural affairs, and transport. It manages an annual budget of more than £30 billion. The government is led by the First Minister. The First Minister is nominated by the Scottish Parliament, but is appointed by the Queen. The First Minister then chooses his Ministers and junior Ministers, which should be approved by the Parliament. The First Minister, the Ministers, the Lord Advocate and Solicitor General are the Members of the "Scottish Executive", as set out in the Scotland Act 1998. They are collectively known as "the

Scottish Ministers".

Welsh Assembly Government

The current Welsh assembly government was formed several weeks after the 2007 elections. The Welsh assembly government consists of: The First Minister, Welsh Ministers, The Counsel General and Deputy Ministers. The First Minister will be nominated by the Assembly and then appointed by Her Majesty the Queen. The First Minister then appoints the Welsh Ministers and the Deputy Ministers with the approval of Her Majesty. Counsel General will give the Welsh assembly government legal advice and will be appointed by the Queen on the nomination of the First Minister. The Welsh Assembly Government and the National Assembly for Wales have more limited powers than those devolved to Scotland.

Northern Ireland Government

The Northern Ireland Executive and Assembly have powers closer to those already devolved to Scotland. The Northern Ireland Executive is led by a diarchy, currently First Minister Peter Robinson who is a member of Democratic Unionist Party and deputy First Minister Martin McGuinness.

Glossary

convention 习俗,惯例
Westminster 西敏寺
answerable 有责任的
dissolution 解散
general election 大选
realm 国度
sovereign 君主
collectively 共同地
dissolve 解散
prerogative 特权
patronage 支持
ceremonial 礼仪的
underestimate 低估
commander-in-chief 总司令
preside 主持
allocate 分配
confidential 机密的
statutory 依照法令的
reshuffle 改组
initiate 开始,着手
proceeding 议程
dissent 异议
ad hoc 临时的
bind 约束
assume 就职
bicameral 有两个议会的
chamber 议院
summon 召唤
devolve (将权力职责)交给下属
session 开庭,开会
adjournment 延期,休会
prorogation 休会,闭会
hereditary 世袭的
amendment 修改,修订
constituency 选区
peerage 贵族
aisle 通道
electorate 全体选民
unicameral 一院制的,单院的
tribunal 审理委员会

Cultural Notes

1. **Royal Assent** The granting of Royal Assent is the formal method by which a constitutional monarch completes the final stage of the legislative process of lawmaking by formally assenting to an Act of Parliament.
2. **Lord Chief Justice** It is the judge who is second in importance to the Lord Chancellor in the legal system of England and Wales. The Lord Chief Justice is the judge in charge of cases which are judged at a Court of Appeal. Appointed by the crown on the nomination of the prime minister, he usually presides over the Court of Criminal Appeal and is an ex officio member of the Court of Appeal.
3. **Privy Counselors** The word "privy" means "private" or "secret". Previously, a privy council was a committee of the monarch's closest advisors which gave confidential advice on affairs of state to the monarch. Now a privy council is a body that advises the head of state of a nation on how to exercise their executive authority.
4. **Lord-Lieutenants** The title Lord Lieutenants refer to the British monarch's personal representatives for each county in the United Kingdom. They are appointed by the Queen on the advice of the prime minister. Usually a retired local notable, senior military officer, peer or business person is given the post honorarily. Both men and women are eligible for the post. Lord Lieutenants actually have no role in local government. They are responsible for the organisation of all official royal visits to their county. They also carry out other duties in their county, such as the presentation of decorations, The Queen's Awards for Export and Technology, and Queen's Scout and Queen's Guide Awards. Lord-Lieutenants are also responsible for ensuring that the Queen's Private Office is kept informed about local issues relating to their area, particularly when a Royal visit is being planned.
5. **Poet Laureate** In the United Kingdom the term has for centuries been the title of the official poet of the monarch, since the time of Charles II. Poets laureate are appointed by many countries.
6. **Constable of the Tower** The Constable of the Tower is the most senior appointment at the Tower of London. Today the Constable is a ceremonial role and mainly involves taking part in traditional ceremonies within the Tower as well as being part of the community that lives within the fortress. The office is currently occupied by General Sir Richard Dannatt GCB CBE MC, who assumed the post on 1 August 2009.
7. **First among equals** "First among equals" or "first among peers" is a phrase which indicates that a person is the most senior of a group of people sharing the same rank or office. In 1984, author Jeffrey Archer wrote First Among Equals, a popular novel about the careers and private lives of several men vying to become British prime minister. Since then, the prime minister of the United Kingdom has frequently been referred to as "first among equals".
8. **Public Record Office** It holds the official collection of records of public business for England, Wales and the central UK government, including the records of court proceedings going back to the Middle Ages, and the original manuscript of the Domesday Book.
9. **Palace of Westminster** The Palace of Westminster, also known as the Houses of Parliament or Westminster Palace, is the seat of the two houses of the Parliament of the United Kingdom — the House of Lords and the House of Commons. It lies on the north bank of the River Thames in the heart of the

London borough of the City of Westminster, close to the historic Westminster Abbey and the government buildings of Whitehall and Downing Street. The Palace is one of the centers of political life in the United Kingdom.

10. **State Opening of Parliament** In the United Kingdom, the State Opening of Parliament is an annual event that marks the commencement of a session of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. It is held in the House of Lords Chamber, usually in November or December or in a general election year, when the new Parliament first assembles.
11. **Woolsack** The woolsack is a large, wool-stuffed cushion or seat covered with red cloth; it has neither a back nor arms. The woolsack can also refer to the seat of the Lord Speaker in the House of Lords, the Upper House of the Parliament of the United Kingdom.
12. **First past the post** A first-past-the-post system of electing a politician, a government etc is one in which the person or party who gets the most votes wins.
13. **Proportional representation** Proportional representation is sometimes referred to as full representation. It is a category of electoral formula which aims at securing a close match between the percentage of votes that groups of candidates obtain in elections and the percentage of seats they receive. It is often contrasted to plurality voting systems.
14. **Additional Member System** It is a branch of voting systems in which some representatives are elected from geographic constituencies and others are elected under proportional representation from a wider area, usually by party lists.
15. **Single Transferable Vote** It is a preferential voting system designed to minimize "wasted" votes, provide proportional representation, and ensure that votes are explicitly cast for individual candidates rather than party lists.

Questions for Discussion

1. What is the role of the Monarch in the British government?
2. What are the main functions of Parliament?
3. What are the major responsibilities of Prime Minister and Cabinet in Britain?
4. How are the Members of Parliament in the House of Commons elected? How are those in the House of Lords elected?
5. Who are the members of the House of Lords? Who are the members of the House of Commons?
6. What is the function of the House of Lords? What is the function of the House of Commons?

Supplementary Reading

British Politics—Continuities and Change

Before 1914, most ordinary citizens could live their lives with little awareness of central government. Only a small proportion of the population paid income tax and there was little support for the government regulating the nation's economy beyond balancing its income and expenditure, what was called a

nightwatchman's role. Most employees in the public sector were soldiers, sailors, tax collectors, and postal workers. The state's main activities were in the basic areas of defence, police and law and order, diplomacy, and finance, although there was some regulation of health industry. Indeed, it is the oldest departments in British government-the Home Office, Foreign Office, and Treasury-which still deal with these functions. Some would argue that these "primary" tasks (in the sense of being the earliest assumed by government) of maintaining law and order, defending the state's borders, and controlling the currency remain the essential functions of government; if it does not control these, then it ceases to be an effective government. The same claim cannot be made for health, education, or pensions, for example, which can be provided by the market.

Since then and particularly since 1945, the major expansion of state responsibilities has been in the provision of such social services as health, education, and welfare, with the bulk of public expenditure shifting into this last category. In 1999 the three areas accounted for 60 per cent of public spending. Governments make many far-reaching rules-in the form of laws and regulations-for social conduct. They distribute benefits and goods in the form of transfer payments, services, and capital, and raise revenue in the form of direct taxes on income and indirect taxes on goods purchased. Increasingly, the substance of election campaigns and the promises of political parties in their election manifestos reflect this change in the agenda-reducing poverty, promoting economic growth, boosting employment improving the quality of life, and intervening to correct market failures.

For the first three decades after 1945 British governments, like those of most other Western states, preside over a set of policies designed to promote the mixed economy and the Welfare State. These changed the relationships between government and citizen and government and the private sector. The package of policies in this consensus is familiar enough and included the following:

- full employment budgets
- greater acceptance, even conciliation, of the trade unions, whose bargaining position was enhanced through a larger membership and full employment
- public ownership of basic services or utilities
- state provision of social welfare, notably education, health, housing, and social security. In turn, these programmes required high levels of public expenditure and taxation
- economic planning of a sort via a large public sector and a reduced role for the market.

These policies have sometimes been described in shorthand as modern capitalism or social democracy. Many of the policies were already in place in wartime. Indeed, the war experience was a good example of how events can alter the expectations of policy-makers, particularly their perception of what is politically and administratively possible. Middlemas (1979:272) notes that "Slowly but inevitably the state came to be seen as something vaster and more beneficent than the political parties." The salient themes of the policies were as follows:

1. A positive role for government. John Maynard Keynes for economics and William Beveridge for welfare provided the most important justification for active government. As employer, taxer, and distributor of benefits the government played a larger role, one that seemed to be popular with the voters. Processing issues through the political arena rather than the free market seemed to produce greater social peace, at least in the 1950s and 1960s.

2. The provision of the Welfare State. During the war there was greater acceptance of the claim that

citizenship needed to move beyond the achievement of legal and political rights to include a range of social rights. The Welfare State soon acquired an ideological life of its own, incorporating ideas of fairness, a common society, and collectivism.

3. The pursuit of economic growth, to provide welfare and protect the take-home pay of workers. During elections parties made competing claims about their ability to improve the rate of economic growth and thereby improve public services.

4. The conscious pursuit by governments of full employment as a goal of economic policy, acknowledged in the famous 1944 White Paper on Employment. Mass unemployment during the inter-war years discredited free-market (or liberal economic) ideas: the achievement of full employment via Keynesian economics strengthened the collectivist case.

5. Optimism that these goals could be achieved and the belief that the relevant knowledge for improving social conditions was available. After all, full employment policies had worked, so why should not education, housing, and regional policies also succeed?

The role of government as extractor and distributor of revenues and as manager of society increased over time. A lesson of the wartime Keynesian revolution in economic management was that government, by regulating aggregate demand in the economy, could end the mass unemployment of the inter-war years. Governments were expected to try and affect the aggregate levels of economic activity through their fiscal and monetary policies. Their policies on investment, manpower training, industrial relations, tariffs, wages, and prices have a major impact on the private sector.

There are several indicators of the increasing scope of government in Western states: the aggregate number of central and local government employees, public expenditure and taxation as a share of Gross Domestic Product, the amount raised by taxation, or the cumulative number of laws and regulations. In 1998/9, general government expenditure accounted for 40 per cent respectively of the country's GDP. Some 30 per cent of the population derive their primary income from government as recipients of pensions, unemployment or sickness benefits, etc., over 70 per cent of households contain at least one beneficiary of a government programme, and nearly 30 per cent of the workforce are employed by central and local government or the public corporations. The main categories of public employment are the Civil Service, National Health Service, and local government. In the post-war period the numbers employed in education and health have increased sharply, while those in defence, nationalized industries, and public transportation have declined. Finally, around 3,000 laws already exist and governments add to them annually.

Further Reading

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3.《英国社会与文化》，苏立昌编，南开大学出版社，2008。

Useful Websites

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2. http://www.number10.gov.uk/
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Chapter 3

Justice and the Law

导 读
Introduction

英国的司法机关可分为中央司法机关、地方法院和特别法院。中央司法机关由贵族院和枢密院司法委员会构成。英国的地方法院体系复杂，而且英格兰、威尔士和苏格兰、北爱尔兰各不相同。本章对英格兰、北爱尔兰和威尔士的地方法院作简要介绍。

In this chapter we will first introduce the major legal systems of the world today and the major legal systems used in Britain; second, we are going to discuss the structure of the British courts, and finally the legal profession. We begin by looking at the three major legal systems currently implemented in varions carrtries around the world.

Ⅰ. Major legal systems of the world today

The three major legal systems of the world today consist of civil law, common law and religious law. However, each country (see State law) often develops variations on each system or incorporates many other features into the system.

Civil Law

Civil law is the most widespread system of law in the world. It is also sometimes known as Continental European law. The central source of law that is recognized as authoritative are codifications in a constitution or statute passed by legislature, to amend a code. Civil law systems mainly derive from the Roman Empire, and more particularly, the Corpus Juris Civilis issued by the Emperor Justinian ca. 529AD. This was an extensive reform of the law in the Byzantine Empire, bringing it together into codified documents. Civil law was also partly influenced by religious laws such as Canon law and Islamic law. Civil law today, in theory, is interpreted rather than developed or made by judges. Only legislative enactments (rather than judicial precedents, as in common law) are considered legally binding.

Scholars of comparative law and economists promoting the legal origins theory usually subdivide civil

law into four distinct groups:French civil law: in France, the Benelux countries, Italy, Spain and former colonies of those countries; German civil law: in Germany, Austria, Croatia, Switzerland, Greece, Portugal, Turkey, Japan, South Korea and the Republic of China; Scandinavian civil law: in Denmark, Norway and Sweden. Finland and Iceland inherited the system from their neighbors.

Chinese law is a mixture of civil law and socialist law.

Common Law

Common law and equity are systems of law whose sources are the decisions in cases by judges. Alongside, every system will have a legislature that passes new laws and statutes. The relationships between statutes and judicial decisions can be complex. In some jurisdictions such statutes may overrule judicial decisions or codify the topic covered by several contradictory or ambiguous decisions. In some jurisdictions judicial decisions may decide whether the jurisdiction's constitution allowed a particular statute or statutory provision to be made or what meaning is contained within the statutory provisions. Statutes were allowed to be made by the government Common law developed in England, influenced by the Norman conquest of England which introduced legal concepts from Norman law. Common law was later inherited by the Commonwealth of Nations, and almost every former colony of the British Empire has adopted it (Malta being an exception). The doctrine of stare decisis or precedent by courts is the major difference to codified civil law systems.

Common law is currently in practice in Ireland, most of the United Kingdom (England and Wales and Northern Ireland), Australia, India (excluding Goa), Pakistan, South Africa, Canada (excluding Quebec), Hong Kong, the United States (excluding Louisiana) and many other places. In addition to these countries, several others have adapted the common law system into a mixed system. For example, Nigeria operates largely on a common law system, but incorporates religious law.

In the European Union the Court of Justice takes an approach mixing civil law (based on the treaties) with an attachment to the importance of case law. One of the most fundamental documents to shape common law is Magna Carta which placed limits on the power of the English Kings. It served as a kind of medieval bill of rights for the aristocracy and the judiciary who developed the law.

Religious Law

Religious law refers to the notion of a religious system or document being used as a legal source, though the methodology used varies. For example, the use of Jewish Halakha for public law has a static and unalterable quality, precluding amendment through legislative acts of government or development through judicial precedent; Christian Canon law is more similar to civil law in its use of civil codes; and Islamic Sharia law (and Fiqh jurisprudence) is based on legal precedent and reasoning by analogy (Qiyas), and is thus considered similar to common law.

The main kinds of religious law are Sharia in Islam, Halakha in Judaism, and Canon law in some Christian groups. In some cases these are intended purely as individual moral guidance, whereas in other cases they are intended and may be used as the basis for a country's legal system. The latter was particularly common during the Middle Ages.

Ⅱ. Legal systems of the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom has three legal systems. English law, which applies in England and Wales, and Northern Ireland law, which applies in Northern Ireland, are based on common-law principles. Scots law, which applies in Scotland, is a pluralistic system based on civil-law principles, with common law elements dating back to the High Middle Ages. The Treaty of Union, put into effect by the Acts of Union in 1707, guaranteed the continued existence of a separate law system for Scotland. The Acts of Union between Great Britain and Ireland in 1800 contained no equivalent provision but preserved the principle of separate courts to be held in Ireland, now Northern Ireland

The Appellate Committee of the House of Lords (usually just referred to, as "The House of Lords") was the highest court in the land for all criminal and civil cases in England and Wales and Northern Ireland, and for all civil cases in Scots law, but in October 2009 was replaced by the new Supreme Court of the United Kingdom.

England and Wales legal system

In England and Wales, the court system is headed by the Supreme Court of England and Wales, consisting of the Court of Appeal, the High Court of Justice (for civil cases) and the Crown Court (for criminal cases). The Courts of Northern Ireland follow the same pattern. In Scotland the chief courts are the Court of Session, for civil cases, and the High Court of Justiciary, for criminal cases. Sheriff courts have no equivalent outside Scotland as these Courts deal both with criminal and civil caseloads.

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is the highest court of appeal for several independent Commonwealth countries, the British overseas territories, and the British Crown dependencies. There are also immigration courts with UK-wide jurisdiction - the Asylum and Immigration Tribunal and Special Immigration Appeals Commission. The Employment tribunals and the Employment Appeal Tribunal have jurisdiction throughout Great Britain, but not Northern Ireland.

"English law" is a term of art. It refers to the legal system administered by the courts in England and Wales. The ultimate body of appeal is the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom. They rule on both civil and criminal matters. English law is renowned as being the mother of the common law. English law can be described as having its own distinct legal doctrine, distinct from civil law legal systems since 1189. There has been no major codification of the law, and judicial precedents are binding as opposed to persuasive. In the early centuries, the justices and judges were responsible for adapting the Writ system to meet everyday needs, applying a mixture of precedent and common sense to build up a body of internally consistent law. As Parliament developed in strength, and subject to the doctrine of separation of powers, legislation gradually overtook judicial law making so that, today, judges are only able to innovate in certain very narrowly defined areas. Time before 1189 was defined in 1276 as being time immemorial.

After the Acts of Union, in 1707, English law has been one of two legal systems in the same kingdom and has been influenced by Scots law, most notably in the development and integration of the law merchant by Lord Mansfield and in time the development of the law of negligence. Scottish influence may have influenced the abolition of the forms of action in the nineteenth century and extensive

procedural reforms in the twentieth.

Northern Irish legal system

The law of Northern Ireland is a common law system. It is administered by the courts of Northern Ireland, with ultimate appeal to the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom in both civil and criminal matters. The law of Northern Ireland is closely similar to English law, the rules of common law having been imported into the Kingdom of Ireland under English rule. However there are still important differences.

The sources of the law of Northern Ireland are English common law, and statute law. Of the latter, statutes of the Parliaments of Ireland, of the United Kingdom and of Northern Ireland are in force, and latterly statutes of the devolved Assembly.

Scots legal system

Parliament House in Edinburgh is the seat of the Supreme Courts of Scotland.

Scots law is a unique legal system with an ancient basis in Roman law. Grounded in uncodified civil law dating back to the Corpus Juris Civilis, it also features elements of common law with medieval sources. Thus Scotland has a pluralistic, or "mixed", legal system, comparable to that of South Africa, and, to a lesser degree, the partly codified pluralistic systems of Louisiana and Quebec. Since the Acts of Union, in 1707, it has shared a legislature with the rest of the United Kingdom. Scotland and England & Wales each retained fundamentally different legal systems, but the Union brought English influence on Scots law and vice versa. In recent years Scots law has also been affected by both European law under the Treaty of Rome and the establishment of the Scottish Parliament which may pass legislation within its areas of legislative competence as detailed by the Scotland Act 1998.

The legislatures of UK are United Kingdom Parliament, Narthern Ireland Assembly and Scottish Parliament.

Ⅲ. The executive bodies of the British law

Courts of the United Kingdom

The United Kingdom does not have a single unified judicial system. The Courts of the United Kingdom are separated into three separate jurisdictions, serving England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. However, There are exceptions to this rule; in the area of immigration law, the respective jurisdictions of the Asylum and Immigration Tribunal and the Special Immigration Appeals Commission cover all of the United Kingdom; while in employment law, Employment tribunals and the Employment Appeal Tribunal have jurisdiction in the whole of Great Britain (i.e., not in Northern Ireland).

The Constitutional Reform Act 2005 created a new Supreme Court of the United Kingdom to take over the judicial functions of the House of Lords and devolution cases from the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The Supreme Court began work in 2009, and serves as the highest court of appeal in England and Wales and in Northern Ireland, and for civil cases in Scotland. The High Court of Justiciary

will remain the court of last resort in Scotland for criminal cases. The Supreme Court of the United Ki ngdom operates across all three separate jurisdictions, hearing civil — but not criminal — appeals in Scottish cases, and determining devolution and human rights issues.

Supreme Court of the United Kingdom

The Supreme Court of the United Kingdom is the supreme court (court of last resort, highest appellate court) in all matters under English law, Welsh law, Northern Irish law and Scottish civil law (the court has no authority over criminal cases in Scotland, where the High Court of Justiciary remains the supreme criminal court). The Supreme Court also has jurisdiction to determine devolution disputes - cases in which the legal powers of the three devolved governments or laws made by the devolved legislatures are questioned.

The Supreme Court sits in the Middlesex Guildhall in Westminster, London, which it shares with the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

The Supreme Court was established by Part 3 of the *Constitutional Reform Act 2005* and started work on 1 October 2009. It assumed the judicial functions of the House of Lords, which were exercised by the Lords of Appeal in Ordinary (commonly called "Law Lords"), the 12 professional judges appointed as members of the House of Lords to carry its judicial business out. Its jurisdiction over devolution matters had previously been held by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

Jurisdiction

The main role of the UK Supreme Court is to hear appeals from courts in the United Kingdom's three legal systems: England and Wales, Northern Ireland, and Scotland. (English and Welsh law differ only to the extent that the National Assembly for Wales makes laws for Wales that differ from those in England.) The Supreme Court acts as the highest court for civil appeals from the Court of Session in Scotland, but the highest appeal for criminal cases is kept in Scotland. It may hear appeals from the civil Court of Session, just as the House of Lords did previously.

From the Court of Session, permission to appeal is not required and any case can proceed to the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom if two Advocates certify that an appeal is suitable. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland, leave to appeal is required either from the Court of Appeal or from a Justice of the Supreme Court itself.

The Court's focus is on cases that raise points of law of general public importance. Like the previous Appellate Committee of the House of Lords, appeals from many fields of law are likely to be selected for hearing-including commercial disputes, family matters, judicial review claims against public authorities and issues under the Human Rights Act 1998. The Court also hears some criminal appeals, but not from Scotland as there is no right of appeal from the High Court of Justiciary, Scotland's highest criminal court.

The Supreme Court also determines "devolution issues" (as defined by the Scotland Act 1998, the Northern Ireland Act 1998 and the Government of Wales Act 2006). These are legal proceedings about the powers of the three devolved administrations-the Northern Ireland Executive and Northern Ireland Assembly, the Scottish Government and the Scottish Parliament, and the Welsh Assembly Government and the National Assembly for Wales. Devolution issues are previously heard by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council and most are about compliance with rights under the European Convention on

Human Rights, brought into national law by the Devolution Acts and the Human Rights Act 1998.

History

The creation of a Supreme Court for the United Kingdom was first mooted in a July 2003 Department of Constitutional Affairs Consultation Paper. Although the report noted that there had been no criticism of the current law lords, or any indication of an actual bias, it argued that the separation of the judicial functions of the Judicial Committee of the House of Lords should be made explicit from the legislative functions of the House of Lords. First, it was concerned whether there is any longer sufficient transparency of independence from the executive and the legislature to give assurance of the independence of the judiciary. Looked at alternatively it was argued that requirement for the appearance of impartiality and independence also limited the ability of the Law Lords to contribute to the work of the House of Lords, thus reducing the value to both them and the House of their membership. Second, it was concerned that it was not always understood by the public that judicial decisions of "the House of Lords" were in fact taken by the Judicial Committee of the House of Lords and that non-judicial members were never involved in its judgements. Conversely, it was felt that the extent to which the Law Lords themselves have decided to refrain from getting involved in political issues in relation to legislation on which they might later have to adjudicate was not always appreciated. The new President of The Court Lord Phillips has claimed that their old position had confused people and that with the Supreme Court there would for the first time in the UK be a clear separation of powers among the judiciary, the legislature and the executive. Finally, it was noted that space within the House of Lords was at a constant premium and a separate supreme court would ease the pressure on the Palace of Westminster.

Other Supreme Courts in the United Kingdom

The High Court of Justiciary, the Court of Session and the Office of the Accountant of Court comprise the College of Justice, and are known as the Supreme Courts of Scotland.

Before 1 October 2009, there were two other courts known as supreme court, namely the Supreme Court of England and Wales, which was created in the 1870s under the Judicature Acts, and the Supreme Court of Judicature in Northern Ireland, each of which consists of a Court of Appeal, High Court of Justice and Crown Court. When the provisions of the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 came into force, those became known as the Senior Courts of England and Wales and the Court of Judicature of Northern Ireland respectively, to avoid confusion.

Courts of England and Wales

Her Majesty's Courts of Justice of England and Wales are the civil and criminal courts responsible for the administration of justice in England and Wales; they apply the law of England and Wales and are established under Acts of the Parliament of the United Kingdom.

The Court of Appeal, the High Court, the Crown Court, the Magistrates' Courts, and the County Courts are administered by Her Majesty's Courts Service, an executive agency of the Ministry of Justice.

Supreme Court of the United Kingdom

The Supreme Court is the highest appeal court in almost all cases in England and Wales. Prior to the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 this role was held by the House of Lords. The Supreme Court is also the

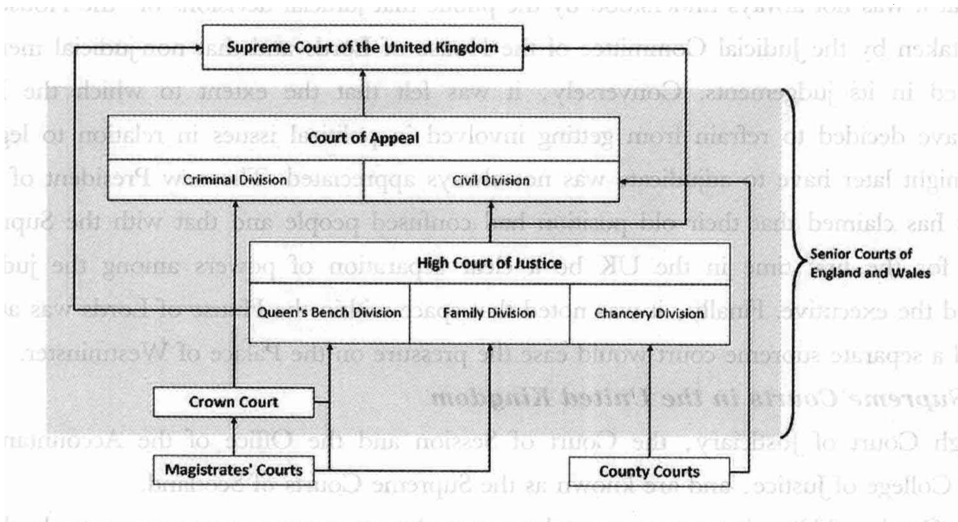
highest court of appeal for devolution matters, a role previously held by the Privy Council.

Judicial Committee of the Privy Council

The Privy Council is the highest court of appeal for a small number of Commonwealth countries, colonies and the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man. There are a number of smaller statutory jurisdictions, such as appeals from ecclesiastical and professional bodies. The judges who sit on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council are also the members of the Supreme Court.

The Senior Courts of England and Wales

The Senior Courts of England and Wales were originally created by the Judicature Acts as the "Supreme Court of Judicature". It was renamed the "Supreme Court of England and Wales" in 1981, and again to the "Senior Courts of England and Wales" by the Constitutional Reform Act 2005. It consists of the following courts:



1) Court of Appeal

The Court of Appeal deals only with appeals from other courts or tribunals. The Court of Appeal consists of two divisions: the Civil Division hears appeals from the High Court and County Court and certain superior tribunals, while the Criminal Division may only hear appeals from the Crown Court connected with a trial on indictment (i.e., for a serious offense). Its decisions are binding on all courts apart from the Supreme Court.

2) High Court

The High Court of Justice functions both as a civil court of first instance and a criminal appellate court for cases from the subordinate courts. It consists of three divisions: the Queen's Bench, the Chancery and the Family divisions. The divisions of the High Court are not separate courts. Although particular kinds of cases will be assigned to each division depending on their subject matter, each division may exercise the jurisdiction of the High Court. However, beginning proceedings in the wrong division may result in a costs penalty.

3) Crown Court

The Crown Court is a criminal court of both original and appellate jurisdiction which in addition handles a limited amount of civil business both at first instance and on appeal. It was established by the

Courts Act of 1971. It replaced the Assizes whereby High Court judges would periodically travel around the country hearing cases, and Quarter Sessions which were periodic county courts. The Old Bailey is the unofficial name of London's most famous Criminal Court, which is now part of the Crown Court. Its official name is the "Central Criminal Court". The Crown Court also hears appeals from Magistrates' Courts.

The Crown Court is the only court in England and Wales that has the jurisdiction to try cases on indictment and when exercising such a role it is a superior court in that its judgments cannot be reviewed by the Administrative Court of the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court.

Subordinate Courts

The most common subordinate courts in England and Wales are the Magistrates' Courts, Family Proceedings Courts, Youth courts, County Courts.

1) Magistrates', Family Proceedings and Youth Courts

Magistrates' Courts are presided over by a bench of lay magistrates (or justices of the peace), or a legally-trained district judge (formerly known as a stipendiary magistrate), sitting in each local justice area. There are no juries. They hear minor criminal cases, as well as certain licensing applications. Youth courts are run on similar lines to Adult magistrates' courts but deal with offenders aged between the ages of 10 and 17 inclusive. Youth courts are presided over by a specially trained subset of experienced Adult Magistrates or a District Judge. Youth Magistrates have a wider catalogue of disposals available to them for dealing with young offenders and often hear more serious cases against youths (which for adults would normally be dealt with by the Crown Court). In addition some Magistrates' Courts are also a Family Proceedings Court and hear Family law cases including care cases and they have the power to make adoption orders. Family Proceedings Courts are not open to the public. The Family Proceedings Court Rules 1991 apply to cases in the Family Proceedings Court. Youth courts are not open to the public for observation, only the parties involved in a case being admitted.

2) County Courts

County Courts are statutory courts with a purely civil jurisdiction. They are presided over by either a District or Circuit Judge and, except in a small minority of cases such as civil actions against the Police, the judge sits alone as trier of fact and law without assistance from a jury. County courts have divorce jurisdiction and undertake private family cases, care proceedings and adoptions.

County Courts are local courts in the sense that each one has an area over which certain kinds of jurisdiction — such as actions concerning land or cases concerning children who reside in the area — are exercised. For example, proceedings for possession of land must be started in the county court in whose district the property lies. However, in general any county court in England and Wales may hear any action and claims are frequently transferred from court to court.

Special Courts and Tribunals

In addition, there are many other specialist courts. These are often described as "Tribunals" rather than courts, but the difference in name is not of any great consequence. For example an Employment Tribunal is an inferior court of record for the purposes of the law of contempt of court. In many cases there is a statutory right of appeal from a tribunal to a particular court or specially constituted appellate tribunal. In the absence of a specific appeals court, the only remedy from a decision of a Tribunal may be

a judicial review to the High Court, which will often be more limited in scope than an appeal.

Examples of specialist courts are:

The Employment Tribunals (formerly Industrial Tribunals) with appeal to the Employment Appeal Tribunal

The Employment Appeal Tribunal, which is a superior court of record, and therefore not subject to judicial review, appeals go to the Court of Appeal

Leasehold Valuation Tribunals, with appeal to the Lands Tribunal

The Lands Tribunal

Rent assessment committees

VAT and Duties Tribunals (who deal with indirect tax cases)

The General Commissioners and Special Commissioners (who deal with direct tax cases)

The post of coroner is ancient, dating from the 11th Century, and coroners still sit today to determine the cause of death in situations where people have died in potentially suspicious circumstances, abroad, or in the care of central authority. They also have jurisdiction over treasure trove.

The Church of England is an established church (i.e.. it is the official state church) and formerly had exclusive or non-exclusive subject matter jurisdiction over marriage and divorce cases, testamentary matters, defamation, and several other areas. Since the nineteenth century, the jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical courts has narrowed principally to matters of church property and errant clergy. Each Diocese has a 'Chancellor' (either a barrister or solicitor) who acts as a judge in the consistory court of the diocese. The Bishop no longer has the right to preside personally, as he formerly did.[citation needed] Appeals lie to the Arches Court (in Canterbury) and the Chancery Court (in York), and from them to the Court of Ecclesiastical Causes Reserved (CECR). From the CECR appeals lie to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

Other courts:

Court-martial (military)

Admiralty court (maritime)

Court of Chivalry (heraldry)

Barmote Court (Derbyshire lead-mining court)

Patents County Court (Intellectual property cases)

Restrictive Practices Court

Criminal Cases

There are two kinds of criminal trial: "summary" and "on indictment". For an adult, summary trials take place in a magistrates' court, while trials on indictment take place in the Crown Court. Despite the possibility of two venues for trial, almost all criminal cases, however serious, commence in the Magistrates' Courts. It is possible to start a trial for an indictable offence by a voluntary bill of indictment, and go directly to the Crown Court, but that would be unusual.

A criminal case that starts in the Magistrates' Court, may begin, either by the defendant being charged and then being brought forcibly before Magistrates, or by summons to the defendant to appear on a certain day before the Magistrates. A summons is usually confined to very minor offences. The hearing (of the charge or summons) before the Magistrates is known as a "first appearance".

Offences are of three categories: indictable only, summary and either way. Indictable only offences such as murder and rape must be tried on indictment in the Crown Court. On first appearance, the Magistrates must immediately refer the defendant to the Crown Court for trial, their only role being to decide whether to remand the defendant on bail or in custody.

Summary offences, such as most motoring offences, are much less serious and most must be tried in the Magistrates' Court, although a few may be sent for trial to the Crown Court along with other offences that may be tried there, for example assault. The vast majority of offences are also concluded in the Magistrates' Court.

Either way offences are intermediate offences such as theft and, with the exception of low value criminal damage, may be tried either summarily by magistrates or by Judge and Jury in the Crown Court. If the magistrates consider that an either way offence is too serious for them to deal with, they may "decline jurisdiction" which means that the defendant will have to appear in the Crown Court. Conversely even if the magistrates accept jurisdiction, an adult defendant has a right to compel a jury trial. Defendants under 18 years of age do not have this right and will be tried in the Youth Court unless the case is homicide or else is particularly serious.

A Magistrates' Court is made up in two ways. Either a group (known as a "bench") of "lay magistrates", who do not have to be, and are not normally, lawyers, will hear the case. A lay bench must consist of at least three magistrates. Alternatively a case may be heard by a district judge (formerly known as a stipendiary magistrate), who will be a qualified lawyer and will sit singly, but has the same powers as a lay bench. District judges usually sit in the more busy courts in cities or hear complex cases (eg extradition). Magistrates have limited sentencing powers.

In the Crown Court, the case is tried by a Recorder (part time judge), Circuit Judge or a High Court judge, with a jury. The status of the judge depends on the seriousness and complexity of the case. The jury is involved only if the defendant pleads "not guilty".

Appeals

From the Magistrates' Court, an appeal can be taken to the Crown Court on matters of fact and law or, on matters of law alone, to the Divisional Court of Queen's Bench Division of the High Court, which is called an appeal "by way of case stated". The Magistrates' Court is also an inferior court and is therefore subject to judicial review.

The Crown Court is more complicated. When it is hearing a trial on indictment (a jury trial) it is treated as a superior court, which means that its decisions may not be judicially reviewed and appeal only lies to the Criminal Division of the Court of Appeal.

In other circumstances (for example when acting as an appeal court from a Magistrates' Court) the Crown Court is an inferior court, which means that it is subject to judicial review. When acting as an inferior court, appeals by way of case stated on matters of law may be made to the Divisional Court of Queen's Bench Division of the High Court.

Appeals from the High Court, in criminal matters, may only go to the Supreme Court. Appeals from the Court of Appeal (Criminal Division) may also only be taken to the Supreme Court.

Appeals to the Supreme Court are unusual in that the court from which appeal is being made (either

the High Court or the Court of Appeal) must certify that there is a question of general public importance. This additional control mechanism is not present with civil appeals and means that far fewer criminal appeals are heard by the Supreme Court.

Civil Cases

Under the Civil Procedure Rules 1998, civil claims under £5,000 are dealt with in the County Court under the "Small Claims Track". This is generally known to the lay public as the "Small Claims Court" but does not exist as a separate court. Claims between £5,000 and £15,000 that are capable of being tried within one day are allocated to the "Fast Track" and claims over £15,000 to the "Multi Track". These "tracks" are labels for the use of the court system — the actual cases will be heard in the County Court or the High Court depending on their value.

For Personal Injury, Defamation cases and some Landlord and Tenant disputes the thresholds for each track have different values.

Courts of Northern Ireland

The courts of Northern Ireland are the civil and criminal courts responsible for the administration of justice in Northern Ireland: they are constituted and governed by Northern Ireland law.

In order to overcome problems resulting from the intimidation of jurors and witnesses, the right to a jury trial in Northern Ireland was suspended for certain terrorist offences in 1972, and the so-called "Diplock courts" were introduced to try people charged with paramilitary activities. This system, however, was ended in 2007.

Supreme Court of the United Kingdom

The Supreme Court was created by the Constitutional Reform Act 2005. It took its duties up on 1st October 2009. It is the highest court of appeal in Northern Ireland, hearing ultimate appeals from all the courts of the United Kingdom, other than Scottish criminal cases.

The Supreme Court has taken over the appellate jurisdiction formerly vested in the House of Lords.

Court of Judicature

The Court of Judicature is constituted by the Judicature (Northern Ireland) Act 1978. Until 1 October 2009 its name was the Supreme Court of Judicature. The Court of Judicature is the most important superior court of Northern Ireland. It consists of the following courts:

The Court of Appeal ("Her Majesty's Court of Appeal in Northern Ireland")

The High Court ("Her Majesty's High Court of Justice in Northern Ireland")

The Crown Court ("Her Majesty's Crown Court in Northern Ireland")

The title of the court was changed on 1st October 2009 when the relevant provisions of the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 came into force establishing the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom.

1) Court of Appeal

The Court of Appeal in Northern Ireland is the highest court specifically of Northern Ireland. Appeal from the Court of Appeal lies to the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom. The Court of Appeal hears appeals from the Crown Court, High Court, county courts, courts of summary jurisdiction and tribunals.

2) High Court

The High Court in Northern Ireland is, like its English equivalent, split into three divisions: Queen's Bench Division, Family Division and Chancery Division. The High Court is located in the Royal Courts of Justice, Belfast.

3) Crown Court

The Crown Court in Northern Ireland hears more serious criminal cases. These are indictable offences and "either way" offences which are committed for trial in the Crown Court rather than the magistrates' courts.

County Courts

The county courts are the main civil courts. While higher-value cases are heard in the High Court, the county courts hear a wide range of civil actions, consumer claims, and appeals from magistrates' courts. The county courts are called family care centres when hearing proceedings brought under the Children (Northern Ireland) Order 1995 and appeals from the family proceedings courts. There are seven county court divisions in Northern Ireland.

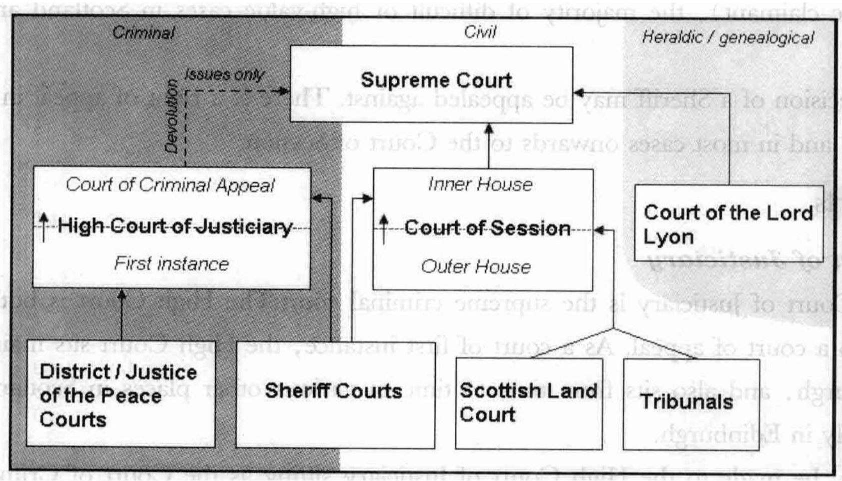
Subordinate Courts

Below the High Court are several classes of courts. Magistrates' courts (including youth courts, family proceedings courts and domestic proceedings courts) hear less-serious criminal cases and conduct preliminary hearings in more serious criminal cases. They are divided into 21 petty sessions districts. The Crown Court hears all serious criminal cases which are committed to trial. When sitting as family proceedings courts the magistrates' courts hear proceedings brought under the Children (Northern Ireland) Order 1995.

Additionally, there is the Enforcement of Judgments Office, and coroners' courts, which investigate the circumstances of sudden, violent or unnatural deaths.

Courts of Scotland

The civil, criminal and heraldic Courts of Scotland are responsible for the administration of justice. They are constituted and governed by Scots law.



Schematic of court system for Scotland

Civil Courts

Supreme Court of the United Kingdom

The Supreme Court created on 1 October 2009 by the Constitutional Reform Act 2005 is the highest civil court of appeal for Scotland. It hears appeals from all the civil courts of the United Kingdom, and the criminal courts of England and Wales and of Northern Ireland.

Until the creation of the Supreme Court, ultimate appeal lay to the House of Lords, a chamber of the Parliament of the United Kingdom (though in modern practice only the Law Lords sitting in the Appellate Committee, rather than the whole House, heard appeals).

On 1 October 2009 the Supreme Court took over the judicial functions of the House of Lords and the work and the devolution jurisdiction originally vested in the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

Cases involving "devolution issues" arising under the Scotland Act 1998, such as disputes regarding the validity of Acts of the Scottish Parliament or executive functions of the Scottish Government, are heard by the Supreme Court. The cases may reach the Court as follows:

The Attorney-General or other Law Officers may refer a bill from the devolved body to the Supreme Court.

The litigants may appeal a case from certain superior courts.

Appellate courts may refer a case to the Supreme Court.

Any court, if a Law Officer so desires, may refer a case to the Supreme Court.

Law Officers may refer any issue not related to a bill or case to the Supreme Court.

Court of Session

The Court of Session is the supreme civil court. It is both a court of first instance and a court of appeal and sits exclusively in Parliament House in Edinburgh. The court of first instance is known as the Outer House, the court of appeal the Inner House.

Sheriff Court

The Sheriff Court is the other civil court; this sits locally. Although the Court of Session and Sheriff Courts have a largely co-extensive jurisdiction, with the choice of court being given in the first place to the pursuer (the claimant), the majority of difficult or high-value cases in Scotland are brought in the Court of Session.

Any final decision of a Sheriff may be appealed against. There is a right of appeal in civil cases to the Sheriff Principal, and in most cases onwards to the Court of Session.

Criminal Courts

High Court of Justiciary

The High Court of Justiciary is the supreme criminal court.The High Court is both a court of first instance and also a court of appeal. As a court of first instance, the High Court sits mainly in Parliament House in Edinburgh, and also sits from time to time in various other places in Scotland. As a court of appeal, it sits only in Edinburgh.

Appeals may be made to the High Court of Justiciary sitting as the Court of Criminal Appeal from the lower courts in criminal cases. An appeal may also be made to the High Court if the High Court itself

heard the case at first instance. Two judges sit to hear an appeal against sentence, and three judges sit to hear an appeal against conviction.

There is no further appeal from the High Court's decision on appeal, in contrast to the Court of Session, from which it is possible to appeal to the Supreme Court of the United Kingdom, the highest court. Appeals under the Human Rights Act 1998 and devolution appeals under the Scotland Act 1998 are heard by the UK Supreme Court.

Sheriff Court

The Sheriff Court is the main criminal court; this sits locally. The procedure followed may either be solemn, where the Sheriff sits with a jury of 15; or summary, where the Sheriff sits alone. From 10 December 2007, the maximum penalty that may be imposed in summary cases is 12 months' imprisonment or a £10,000 fine, in solemn cases 5 years' imprisonment or an unlimited fine.

A higher sentence in solemn cases may be imposed upon reference to the High Court of Justiciary.

District Court

District Courts were introduced in 1975 and sit in each local authority area under summary procedure only. Each court comprises one or more Justices of the Peace (lay magistrates) who sit alone or in threes with a qualified legal assessor as convener or clerk of court. They handle cases of breach of the peace, drunkenness, minor assaults, petty theft, and offences under the Civic Government (Scotland) Act 1982. The maximum penalty which may be imposed is 60 days' imprisonment or a £2,500 fine.

Justice of the Peace Courts

The Scottish Government is in the process of merging the management of the Sheriff and former District courts, but retaining lay Justices. The Criminal Proceedings Reform Scotland Act 2007 enables the Scottish Ministers to replace District Courts by "Justice of the Peace Courts".This process is ongoing, and thus many of the District Courts are now abolished and replaced with the new courts, which have strengthened powers to allow more cases to be dealt with at this level.

Special Courts and Tribunals

Tribunals

Tribunals sit in judgement over a number of specialist areas, and frequently have appeals tribunals above them. For example, the Employment Tribunals , VAT Tribunals, Lands Tribunal for Scotland, etc.

In many cases there is a statutory right of appeal from a tribunal to a particular court or specially constituted appellate tribunal, for example Employment Tribunal cases are appealed to the Employment Appeals Tribunal, which in turn allows appeals to the Court of Session. In the absence of a specific appeals court, the only remedy from a decision of a Tribunal is by judicial review in the Court of Session, which will often be more limited in scope than an appeal.

There are the following tribunals:

1) Asylum and Immigration Tribunal
2) Employment Tribunal
3) VAT and Duties Tribunal
4) Pensions Appeal Tribunals for Scotland

5) Office of the Social Security Commissioners

6) Mental Health Tribunal for Scotland

Children's Hearings

The specialist system of Children's Hearings handles the majority of cases involving allegations of criminal conduct involving persons under 16 in Scotland. These tribunals have wide ranging powers to issue supervision orders for the person referred to them by the Scottish Children's Reporter Administration. Serious crimes, at the direction of the Procurator Fiscal, are still dealt with in the usual criminal courts.

Court of the Lord Lyon

The Court of the Lord Lyon, the standing court of heraldry and genealogy, is responsible for civil and criminal enforcement of armorial bearings and the right to use certain titles. It is headed by the Lord Lyon, who is King of Arms and senior herald for Scotland.

Ⅳ. Outside Court-The Professionals

Barristers and Solicitors

These two professions date back to the 14th century when the-legal profession divided lawyers into two branches, today seen as the advocate or barrister who pleads the case in court, and the solicitor who prepares the case for the barrister before the court hearing. A traditional difference between these two professions is that agents can call at a solicitor's office and ask for advice in a personal interview; however a barrister can only be contacted indirectly through a solicitor. Lawyers are one of the highest paid professions in Britain. They are self-employed and self-regulating; each branch has its own governing body. Strict regulations govern the entry to each branch of the profession



An artist's rendition of an early 20th century English barrister

Differences between Barristers and Solicitors

Essentially, barristers are the lawyers who represent litigants as their advocate before the courts of that jurisdiction. They speak in court and present the case before a judge or jury. In contrast, solicitors generally engage in preparatory work and advice, such as drafting and reviewing legal documents, dealing with and receiving instructions from the client, preparing evidence, and managing the day-to-day administration of a matter. Solicitors have more direct contact with the clients and are responsible for engaging an appropriate barrister, whereas barristers often only become involved in a case once advocacy before a court is needed by the client. Barristers are also engaged by solicitors to provide specialist advice on points of law. Barristers are rarely instructed by

clients directly. Instead, the client's solicitors will instruct a barrister on behalf of the client when appropriate.

In court, barristers are often visibly distinguished from solicitors by their apparel. For example, in Ireland, England and Wales, barristers usually wear a horsehair wig, stiff collar, bands and a gown. As of January 2008 Solicitor advocates will also be entitled to wear a wig, but will wear a different gown.

The historical difference between the two professions-and the only essential difference in England and Wales today-is that a solicitor is an attorney, which means they can act in the place of their client for legal purposes (as in signing contracts), and may conduct litigation by making applications to the court, writing letters in litigation to the client's opponent and so on. A barrister is not an attorney and is usually forbidden, either by law or professional rules or both, from "conducting" litigation. This means that while the barrister speaks on the client's behalf in court, the barrister does so when instructed by a solicitor. This difference in function explains many of the practical differences between the two professions.

Many countries do not observe a distinction between barristers and solicitors. Attorneys are permitted to conduct all aspects of litigation and appear before those courts where they have been admitted to the bar.

In many countries the traditional divisions between barristers and solicitors are breaking down. Barristers once enjoyed a monopoly on appearances before the higher courts, but in most countries this has now been abolished, and solicitor advocates can generally appear for clients at trial. Increasingly, firms of solicitors are keeping even the most advanced advisory and litigation work in-house for economic and client relationship reasons. Similarly, the prohibition on barristers taking instructions directly from the public has also been widely abolished, but in practice, direct instruction is still a rarity in most jurisdictions, partly because barristers with narrow specialisations or who are only really trained for advocacy are not equipped to provide general advice to members of the public.

Historically barristers have had a major role in trial preparation, including drafting pleadings and reviewing evidence. In some areas of law, that is still the case. In others, it is relatively common for a barrister to only receive a "brief" from an instructing solicitor to represent a client at trial a day or two before the hearing.

Justification for a Split Profession

The reasons for a split profession are largely historical, but a number of reasons are still advanced for maintaining the split.

Having an independent barrister reviewing a cause of action gives the client a fresh and independent opinion from an expert in the field, something that rarely happens in jurisdictions with fused professions. In many jurisdictions, judges are appointed from the bar; and because barristers are independent, this results in a more independent judiciary.

Having recourse to all of the specialist barristers at the bar enables smaller firms, who could not maintain large specialist departments, to compete with larger firms.

A barrister acts as a check on the solicitor conducting the trial; if it becomes apparent that the claim or defence has not been properly conducted by the solicitor prior to trial, the barrister can advise the client of a separate possible claim against the solicitor.

Having trials conducted by experienced specialist advocates makes for smoother, more professionally run trials.

Against the above, a number of disadvantages are put forward:

A multiplicity of legal advisors leads to higher costs. As barristers are dependent upon solicitors for referrals of work, it is open to question how willing barristers are to criticise those who instruct them to the client. Barristers are sometimes criticised for being "over-specialised" and not having sufficient general expertise outside of their fields in some highly specialised fields.

Barristers and Solicitors in England and Wales

Although England and Wales are separate in some aspects of the political structure of the United Kingdom, they compose a single legal jurisdiction. Accordingly, they are served by a single bar.

The profession of barrister in England and Wales is a separate profession from that of solicitor. It is, however, possible to hold the qualification of both barrister and solicitor at the same time. It is not necessary to leave the bar to qualify as a solicitor.

Student barristers must take a Bar Professional Training Course (BPTC-previously Bar Vocational Course or BVC) (usually one year full-time) at one of the institutions authorised by the Bar Council to offer the BPTC. On successful completion of the BPTC student barristers are "called" to the bar by their respective inns and are elevated to the degree of "Barrister". However, before they can practise independently they must first undertake twelve months of pupilage. The first six months of this period is spent shadowing more senior practitioners, after which pupil barristers may begin to undertake some court work of their own. Following successful completion of this stage, most barristers then join a set of Chambers, a group of counsel who share the costs of premises and support staff whilst remaining individually self-employed.

In December 2004 there were just over 11,500 barristers in independent practice, of whom about ten percent are Queen's Counsel and the remainder are junior barristers. Many barristers (about 2,800) are employed in companies as 'in-house' counsel, or by local or national government or in academic institutions.

Certain barristers in England and Wales are now instructed directly by members of the public. Members of the public may engage the services of the barrister directly; a solicitor is not involved at any stage. Barristers undertaking public access work can provide legal advice and representation in court in almost all areas of law and are entitled to represent clients in any court or tribunal in England and Wales. Once instructions from a client are accepted, it is the barrister rather than the solicitor who advises and guides the client through the relevant legal procedure or litigation.

Before a barrister can undertake Public Access work, he must have completed a special course. At present, about 1 in 20 barristers have so qualified. There is also a separate scheme called 'Licensed Access', available to certain nominated classes of professional client; it is not open to the general public.

The ability of barristers to accept such instructions is a recent development; it results from a change in the rules set down by the General Council of the Bar in July 2004. The Public Access Scheme has been introduced as part of the drive to open up the legal system to the public and to make it easier and cheaper

to obtain access to legal advice. It further reduces the distinction between solicitors and barristers. The distinction remains however because there are certain aspects of a solicitor's role that a barrister is not able to undertake.

Before the unification of the Supreme Court in 1873, solicitors practised in courts of equity, while attorneys practised in the common law courts. After 1873 the title of "attorney" disappeared, being replaced by "solicitor" in all courts.

In the English legal system, solicitors traditionally dealt with any legal matter apart from conducting proceedings in courts. Minor criminal cases tried in Magistrates' Courts, for example, and small claims civil cases tried in county courts are almost always handled by solicitors. Barristers have traditionally carried out the functions of advocacy. In the past, barristers did not deal with the public directly. This rigid separation no longer applies. Solicitor advocates with an additional audience rights qualification may now act at all levels of the courts. Conversely, the public may now hire and interact with a barrister directly in certain types of work without having to go to a solicitor first.

Recent Developments

In England and Wales, the strict separation between the duties of solicitor and barrister has been partially broken down and solicitors frequently appear not only in the lower courts but increasingly in the higher courts, too such as the High Court of Justice of England and Wales and the Court of Appeal. While the independent bar still exists in a largely unchanged state, a few firms of solicitors now employ their own barristers and solicitor advocates to do some court work. Barristers, in turn, can now be directly instructed by certain organizations such as trade unions, accountants, and similar groups. Additionally, barristers who have completed the Bar Council's "Public Access" course can take instructions directly from members of the public, although there are some limitations on the type of work that can be done this way: for example, such barristers cannot take control of the conduct of litigation nor can they act in matrimonial matters.

This breakdown in the strict separation between barrister and solicitor is expected to go further, with the advent of Legal Disciplinary Practices (on 31 March 2009) and Alternate Business Structures (expected 2011) appearing.

Regulation of both barristers and solicitors was reviewed by David Clementi on behalf of the Ministry of Justice in 2004. He delivered his final recommendations in December 2004 which included proposals for a more unified regulatory system and new structures for cross-profession work. Many of his recommendations were enshrined in the Legal Services Act 2007.

Legal Professionals in Scotland

Scotland's legal system is separate from those of England and Wales and Northern Ireland. In Scotland, the legal profession is divided between solicitors and advocates, the distinction being similar to that between solicitors and barristers in England and Wales, though Scottish solicitors have traditionally represented their clients in the lower courts such as the Sheriff Court and the District Court, only being excluded from the High Court of Justiciary and the Court of Session. However, under Section 24 of the Law Reform Scotland Act 1990, suitably qualified solicitors were for the first time in Scotland granted

rights of audience in the Supreme Courts in Scotland as well as in the House of Lords and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council as solicitor advocates.

In Scotland, solicitors are regulated by the Law Society of Scotland, which require prospective solicitors to pass exams in a curriculum set by the Society. Ordinarily, this is done by obtaining a Bachelor of Laws (LLB) in Scots law at a university approved by the Society, though it is also possible to sit the Society's own exams. Prospective solicitors are then required to take the Diploma in Legal Practice (a one-year course provided by several Scottish universities) and then undertake a two-year trainee ships with a law firm before they can qualify as a solicitor. As the Faculty of Advocates used to require a M.A. degree of its candidates, it used to be common to take a five-year combined MA LLB curriculum at the Scottish universities. Those intending to become solicitors who studied law as a first degree were at one time awarded a BL degree.

Prior to the formation of The Law Society of Scotland, solicitors were in most areas organized into a local Faculty of Procurators or Faculty of Procurators and Solicitors. These societies still exist, but their influence has waned. Whereas membership was once required in order to practice law in a particular locality, as long as a solicitor is registered with The Law Society of Scotland this is no longer the case. The local societies are now more likely to provide their members with a well-stocked law library, continuing professional development courses (all solicitors in Scotland are required to complete 20 hours of continuing professional development each year), and lobby on behalf of their members with The Law Society of Scotland and The Scottish Government regarding future legal developments.

In Glasgow, the Royal Faculty of Procurators still exists. In Edinburgh, both The Society of Writers to Her Majesty's Signet, whose members refer to themselves as a *Writer to the Signet* (W.S.), and the Society of Solicitors to the Supreme Courts (S.S.C.) are still in existence. In Aberdeen, solicitors may belong to the Society of Advocates in Aberdeen. Its members are formally referred to as "Advocate in Aberdeen" to distinguish them from regular Scottish advocates.

Solicitors in Scotland have full rights of audience in the Sheriff Courts throughout Scotland in both criminal and civil cases. They also have rights of audience in the District Courts (the lowest criminal court in Scotland), although these are now being replaced by Justice of the Peace Courts, in which a solicitor also has a full right of audience. When in court, a solicitor will normally wear a suit and tie together with a Scottish bar gown.

Glossary

Civil law 大陆法系
Common law 普通法,英美法系
Jurisdiction 司法权;裁判权
Court of Appeal 上诉法庭
High Court of Justice 高等法院
Crown Court 皇室法院
Magistrates' Courts 治安法院
Family Proceedings Courts 家事法院
Youth courts 青年法院
County Courts 郡法院

Tribunal 审判员席，法官席
ecclesiastical courts 英国教会法院
Judicial Committee of the Privy Council 枢密院司法委员会；英联邦终审法院
Sheriff Court 地方法院
Asylum and Immigration Tribunal 政庇及移民裁判署
Employment Tribunal 就业审裁处
Procurator Fiscal（苏格兰）地方检察官
appellate courts 上诉审法院
Barrister 大律师；专门律师；出庭律师
Solicitors 初级律师，事务律师
Pleadings（律）诉状，答辩状
Pupilage 见习律师
Liaise 做联络人；联络
attorney 代理人，律师
advocacy（律师）出庭辩护
litigation 诉讼

Cultural Notes

1. **The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council (JCPC)** is one of the highest courts in the United Kingdom, established by the Judicial Committee Act 1833. It is also the highest court of appeal (or court of last resort) for several independent Commonwealth countries, the UK overseas territories, and the British Crown dependencies. It is simply referred to as the Privy Council, as appeals are in fact made to the Queen as Her Majesty in Council, who then refers the case to the Judicial Committee for "advice". The panel of judges hearing a particular case (typically five members) is known as "the Board".
2. **Devolution** The transfer of powers from central government to regional and local governments. UK devolution has been based on the principle that decision-making powers be devolved to the appropriate level of governance, creating new assemblies in Wales and Scotland for the purpose. With the rise of nationalism, devolution may be seen as one way to avoid ethnic unrest; power has been devolved to the Basques in Spain, for example, partly as a response to local discord.
3. **The Constitutional Reform Act 2005** is an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. It provides for a Supreme Court of the United Kingdom to take over the existing role of the Law Lords and some powers of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, and remove the functions of Speaker of the House of Lords and Head of the Judiciary of England and Wales from the office of Lord Chancellor.
4. **Court of Session** In 1532, partly at papal suggestion, James V established a Court of Session, or College of Justice. There were to be fifteen members. The arrangements were confirmed by the Act of Union, though the number of justices has been increased to deal with the growth of litigation. The justices are accorded the courtesy title Lord, though they do not sit in the House of Lords, and the title is not hereditary.
5. **Writer to the Signet** The Society of Writers to Her Majesty's Signet is a private society of Scottish solicitors. The Society dates back to 1594 and is part of the College of Justice. Writers to the Signet originally had special privileges in relation to the drawing up of documents which required to be signeted, but these have disappeared and the Society is now an independent, non-regulatory association of solicitors, most of whom are based in Edinburgh. Members of the Society, Writers to

the Signet, use the postnominal letters WS.

Questions for Discussion

1. Who presides over the administration of justice in Britain?
2. What are the major legal systems in Britain?
3. How do you divide the British courts according to the nature of cases?
4. What's the difference between barristers and solicitors?

Supplementary Reading

The Criminal Justice System (CJS) of England and Wales

The CJS is one of the major public services in the country. Across the CJS, agencies such as the police, the Crown Prosecution Service, the courts and the National Offender Management Service work together to deliver criminal justice.

The work of these agencies is overseen by three government departments: the Ministry of Justice, the Home Office and the Attorney General's Office.

These departments and agencies are working together to reform and improve the Criminal Justice System.

The Local Criminal Justice Boards lead on key priorities for reducing crime and administering justice on a local basis.

Aims and Objectives

The purpose of the Criminal Justice System (CJS) is to deliver justice for all, by convicting and punishing the guilty and helping them to stop offending, while protecting the innocent. It is responsible for detecting crime and bringing it to justice; and carrying out the orders of court, such as collecting fines, and supervising community and custodial punishment.

The key goals for the CJS are:

To improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the CJS in bringing offences to justice;

To increase public confidence in the fairness and effectiveness of the CJS;

To increase victim satisfaction with the police, and victim and witness satisfaction with the CJS;

To consistently collect, analyse and use good quality ethnicity data to identify and address race disproportionality in the CJS; and

To increase the recovery of criminal assets by recovering £250m of assets acquired through crime by 2009-10.

Working together to cut crime and deliver justice

The Criminal Justice Strategic Plan 2008-2011 sets out how the agencies of the Criminal Justice System (CJS) in England and Wales will work together to deliver a justice system which:

Is effective in bringing offences to justice, especially serious offences;

Engages the public and inspires confidence;

Puts the needs of victims at its heart; and has

Simple and efficient processes.

How it works

A wide number of agencies work together to deliver what is known as criminal justice, including the police, the Crown Prosecution Service, the courts and the National Offender Management Service (covering the prison and probation service).

The work of these various agencies is overseen by three government departments: the Ministry of Justice, the Home Office and the Attorney General's Office.

This section explains who does what, the role of the various agencies and what happens at each stage of the process. It also explores what is being done to:

Prevent and detect more crime

Give victims and witnesses more support

Punish and rehabilitate more offenders.

http://www.cjsonline.gov.uk/the_cjs/

The Ministry of Justice

The Ministry of Justice is one of the largest government departments, with around 95,000 people (including probation services) and a budget of £9.2 billion.

Every year around nine million people use our services in 900 locations across the United Kingdom, including 650 courts and tribunals and 139 prisons in England and Wales.

Our work spans criminal, civil and family justice, democracy, rights and the constitution.

The Ministry of Justice works to protect the public and reduce reoffending, and to provide a more effective, transparent and responsive criminal justice system for victims and the public. We also provide fair and simple routes to civil and family justice.

The Ministry of Justice's creation on 9 May 2007 brought together, for the first time, responsibility for the justice system - the courts, prisons, probation services and attendance centres. We work in partnership with the other government departments and agencies to reform the criminal justice system, to serve the public and support the victims of crime. We are also responsible for making new laws, strengthening democracy, modernising the constitution and safeguarding human rights.

http://www.justice.gov.uk/about.htm

Further Reading

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2. Morgan, Dered (ed). *Constitutional Innovation: the Creation of a Supreme Court for the United Kingdom* (A special issue of the Legal Studies, the Journal of the Society of Legal Scholars).

3. Salmond, John William (1907). *Jurisprudence, or, The Theory of the Law (2 ed.).* Stevens and Haynes.
4. Britain's Legal Systems, Central Office of Information, 1997

Useful Websites

1. http://www.wisegeek.com/what-is-case-law.htm
2. http://www.justice.gov.uk/

Chapter 4
Political Parties and Groups



导 读
Introduction

英国是世界上最早出现资产阶级政党并最先确立和实行两党制的国家。19世纪前的英国是辉格党和托利党轮流执政时期。辉格党代表新兴资产阶级和新贵族的利益，主张限制君权，增强议会权力；托利党代表地主贵族利益，主张维护君主特权。

19世纪30年代，英国统治阶级内部发生变化，形成了保守党与自由党。保守党是在原托利党的基础上形成，主要代表土地贵族、金融贵族和大商人利益。自由党是在原辉格党的基础上形成，主要代表工业资产阶级利益的改革势力。到了19世纪末20世纪初，保守党逐步由土地贵族的政党演变为垄断资产阶级的政党。与此同时，自由党逐渐衰落。20世纪初，随着工业革命的发展和工人队伍的不断壮大，工党崛起。从1924年开始，工党取代自由党，与保守党轮流执政。1988年，自由党和社会民主党合并组成自由民主党。该党目前是英国国会中紧随工党和保守党之后的第三大党。除此之外还有社会自由民主党、社会民主党、英国共产党、合作党、威尔士民族党、苏格兰民族党、民族阵线以及英国革命共产主义同盟等。

压力集团又称为利益集团，是指那些致力于影响国家政策方向的、但是其本身并不谋求组织政府的组织。压力集团可能是一个正式的组织体，但在多数情况下只是由利益相近的一些组织或个人以非组织的形式存在。压力集团是英国政治机构和政治决策执行过程中的一个重要因素，也是人们参与政治的主要途径之一。

本章主要围绕政党与压力集团两个方面进行介绍。

Ⅰ. Political Party System

The political party system is crucial to the working of the British government. The British government is formed by the party which wins the absolute majority of seats in the House of Commons. The Queen appoints the leader of the party as prime minister, who then acts as head of government. The party which wins the second-largest number of seats in the House of Commons forms Her Majesty's Loyal Opposition, or the Official Opposition in the United Kingdom. It has its own leader and 'shadow

cabinet'. The Opposition scrutinizes government policies and offers an alternative program.

Register of Political Parties

Traditionally political parties have been private organizations which were not officially recognized by the UK. Under the Registration of Political Parties Act 1998, a register of political parities was set up in the United Kingdom. Under current electoral law, including the Registration of Political Parties Act 1998, the Electoral Administration Act 2006, and the Political Parties, Elections and Referendums Act 2000, only the parties registered in the Electoral Commission's Register of Political Parties can take part in the election fighting. Candidates who are not a member of a registered party can use "independent" or no label at all. By 28 January 2010, (2010 -01-28)[update] 345 parties have been registered in Great Britain and 44 in Northern Ireland.

Brief History

Before the mid-19th century, the Whigs and the Tories were the dominant powers in the politics of the United Kingdom. The Whigs, originally known as the "Country Party", were in association with the newly emerging wealthy merchants and industrial classes, and the Tories, known as the "Court Party", were in association with the landed gentry, the Church of England and the Church of Scotland.

By the mid 19th century the Tories had developed into the Conservative Party, and the Whigs had developed into the Liberal Party. These two parties dominated the British politics until the 1920s, when the Liberal Party was on the decline and then replaced by the newly emerging Labour Party who drew support from the trades unions and various socialist societies.

By then the Conservative and Labour Parties have been the two largest political parties in the United Kingdom. Since the 1920s, the government has been led either by the Labour Party or the Conservative Party. However, the UK is not quite a two-party system but a multi-party system since a third party plays an important role in preventing half of the votes/seats from going to a single party. Currently, the Liberal Democrats is the third largest party. It was formed by the merger of the former Liberal Party and Social Democratic Party in 1988. The Liberals merged with the Social Democrats because they shared many similar views.

Local political parties are important in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, but are of less importance in England. The Scottish National Party, a centre-left nationalist political party, has become the largest party in Scottish Parliament since 2007. In Wales, the nationalist party, Plaid Cymru, is the junior coalition partner in the Welsh Assembly Government. In Northern Ireland, the major parties are the Democratic Unionist Party, Social Democratic and Labour Party, Ulster Unionist Party and Sinn Féin.

Labour Party

Origins

The origins of the Labour Party can be dated back to the late 19th century. Since the implementation of the Reform Bills of 1867 and 1884, urban workers have been enfranchised. Thus, it became urgent to have a party to represent the interests and need of the urban proletariat. At this time, some socialist groups have been formed to help the members of the trades union movement move into the political field. The socialist groups were Labour Representation League (1869), Social Democratic Federation (1881),

Fabian Society (1883), and Independent Labour Party (1893). They all played an important role in the history of the Labour Party. Under the help of the Fabian Society and the Trades Union Congress, the Independent Labour Party created the Labour Representation Committee in 1900. Later in 1906, the name of Labour Party was adopted. At this time, the dominant ideology was the evolutionary socialism supported by the Fabians.

1914 to 1945

When the First World War broke out, the main part of the party supported the war and the leader of the party served in the cabinet of the coalition governments during the wartime. Until 1918 the party was clearly an alliance of trade unions and socialist groups. After the war, economic recession, the growing political awareness of the working classes, and the catastrophic split in the Liberal Party helped Labour Party gain a number of followers. In 1918, Labour no longer supported the coalition, and in 1922 it became the second largest party in the House of Commons and thus the official opposition to the Conservative government.

The first Labour government was formed in January, 1924, with Ramsay MacDonald as prime minister. The government existed for only 9 months. In Oct., 1924, the party lost its power because of the notorious Zinoviev letter.

In the 1929 general election, the Labour Party became the largest party in the House of Commons for the first time. After the election, Labour formed another minority government. After the government took the power, it soon found it was facing great crisis, the Wall Street Crash of 1929 and Great Depression. When facing the crisis, the government had no good ways. In 1931, MacDonald decided to form a "National Government" with the Conservatives and the Liberals, which made the members of the Labour irritated. Later, he and the members who joined him were expelled from the Labour Party.

In the 1931 election, Labour Party was defeated heavily. Until 1935, the party recovered its strength and gained a revival.

During World War II, Labour agreed to serve in Winston Churchill's coalition government. The leader of Labour Clement Attlee became the deputy prime minister and many members of the Labour were appointed and took positions in the coalition government.

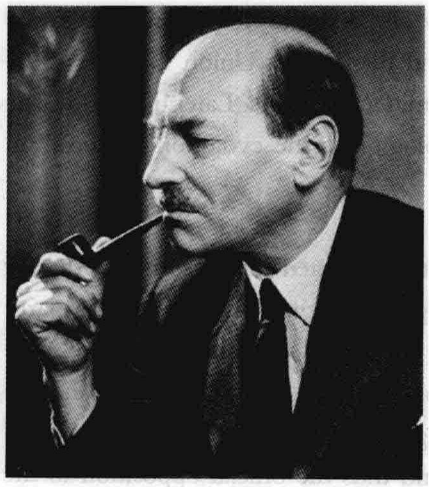
The Postwar Years

In the 1945 general election, Labour won an overwhelming electoral victory and Clement Attlee was appointed prime minister. He then formed Labour's first majority government.

Under the guidance of Attlee, the government established the British National Health Service and created and developed the "cradle to grave" welfare state. Until now the party regards the 1948 creation of Britain's National Health Service its most significant achievement. Attlee's government also nationalized the basic industries and public utilities, including the Bank of England and civil aviation, coal mining, the railways, road haulage, canals and cable and wireless, electricity and gas, and the steel industry. By 1951 about 1/5 of the British economy had been nationalized. In matters of colonial policy, Attlee's government also began the process of decolonizing part of the British Empire by granting independence to India and Pakistan, Burma (Myanmar), and Ceylon (Sri Lanka). Thus, it helped quicken the steps of British's conversion from an empire to the Commonwealth of Nations.

In the mean time, Attlee's government was faced with severe financial difficulties. In spite of these problems, Attlee's government endeavored to maintain the near full employment. The government

continued to win the 1950 general election but it failed in the following year and was replaced by the Conservatives. During the long period of 13 years in opposition, argument over many issues split the Labour Party. After Attlee retired, Hugh Gaitskell became party leader, who, however, did not improve the situation. Upon the death of him, Harold Wilson became leader of the Labour Party.

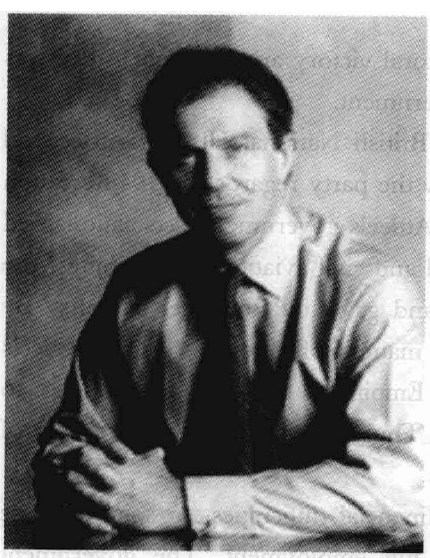


Clement Attlee

The 1960s to the Present

Under Harold Wilson, the Labour Party won a victory and returned to government in 1964. Wilson served as prime minister until 1970 when Labour lost the 1970 election to the Conservatives under Edward Heath. In the general election of February 1974, under the guidance of Wilson the Labour Party won and formed a minority government with the support of the Ulster Unionists. In order to gain the majority of the votes, Labour called for another election and won a small majority. Harold Wilson resigned from his position in 1976 and James Callaghan was appointed to be Labour's new prime minister. The Wilson and Callaghan governments strived to make the inflation under control by carrying out the policy of wage restraint, which turned out to be successful. However, after experiencing the "Winter of Discontent" during the late 1970s, the Labour Party was defeated by the Conservatives under Margaret Thatcher in the 1979 election. The party remained the Official Opposition until the late 1990s. From 1980 to 1983, Michael Foot served as the leader of the party and his next successors were Neil Kinnock and John Smith. After John Smith suddenly died from a heart attack in 1994, Tony Blair became the leader of the party.

At the 1995 Labour Party conference, Tony Blair succeeded in replacing Clause IV of the party's constitution with a new statement which reads "The Labour Party is a democratic socialist party". Under his guidance, Labour used the term "New Labour" to distinguish itself from "Old Labour". On the way to modernize the party, he took measures to reduce the trade union influence in the party and became more associated with the middle class.



Tony Blair

Under Blair Labour won a landslide victory in the 1997 general election by winning a majority of seats in the House of Commons, which can be seen as Labour's biggest majority ever. The leader of the Labour Party, Tony Blair became the youngest prime minister since William Pitt the Younger.

During the first few years of the New Labour government, Blair's government put forward a "third way" program and carried out a number of 1997 manifesto pledges, for instance, the minimum wage, Human Rights Act and Freedom of Information Act. At the same time, his government helped to create elected representative bodies in Scotland and Wales and support the peace talk in Northern Ireland, which thus established the Scottish Parliament, the National Assembly for Wales, and the Northern Ireland Assembly.

Blair led the party to another two victories in the 2001 and 2005 elections. He was the only person to lead the party to three consecutive general election victories. During his terms, Blair has increased taxes; brought forward a minimum wage and some new employment rights; carried out significant constitutional reforms; called for new rights for gay people in the Civil Partnership Act 2004; and signed treaties to make Britain more integrated with the EU. He carried out reforms in the areas of education and health sectors.



Blair and Bush

After the September 11 terrorist attack on the U.S. in 2001, Blair strongly supported the United States. Despite resistance from the British public and the Labour Party to war he used the British military forces in the 2001 invasion of Afghanistan and 2003 invasion of Iraq. Blair's continual support of the Iraq War caused his popularity to decline.

Under great pressure from his own party, in 2006, Blair announced that he would leave his position and a year later, on June 27, 2007, he resigned as prime minister. He was succeeded by Gordon Brown, Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Brown became the prime minister of the United Kingdom on 27 June 2007. Like all modern prime ministers, Brown now serves as the First Lord of the Treasury and the Minister for the Civil Service, and is a member of the Cabinet of the United Kingdom. Brown is the first prime minister from a Scottish constituency since 1964.

Conservative Party

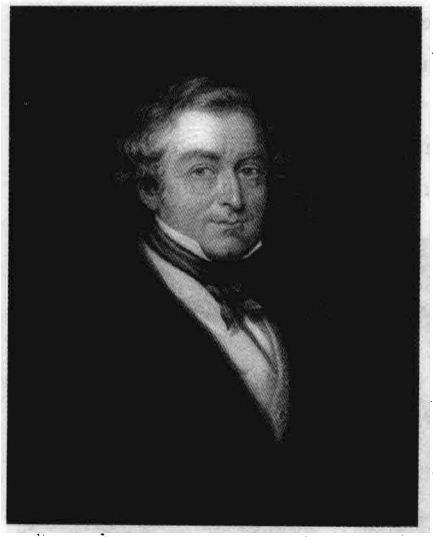
Origins in the Whig Party

The Conservative Party can trace its history to the Tory Party during the 17th century. However, most members of the party were not satisfied with the "Tory" name. The term "Conservative" was first used in the 1820s. During the 1830s, it was suggested to be used as the title of the party. Later in 1834, it was officially used as the name of the party under Sir Robert Peel, who is mostly regarded as the founder of the Conservative Party.

Conservatives and Unionists

With the Reform Act of 1867, the Conservative Party widened their electoral franchise under Lord Derby and Benjamin Disraeli. In 1886 the party entered into an alliance with Lord Hartington and Joseph Chamberlain's new Liberal Unionist Party. The Conservative Party held power for a long time until 1906 when it was defeated. In 1912 the party formally formed an alliance with the Liberal Unionists and was officially known as the Unionist Party until 1925.

The Conservatives served in the coalition government during World War I and the coalition government went on under Liberal PM David Lloyd George until 1922. Under Bonar Law and Stanley Baldwin, the party withdrew from the coalition government. From 1931, the party began to serve in another coalition government, the National Government. After the resignation of Neville Chamberlain on 10 May 1940, Churchill became prime minister of the United Kingdom and led a coalition government from 1940 to 1945. Under his guidance, Britain finally achieved victory against the Axis powers.



Sir Robert Peel

However, Churchill's government was defeated by the Labour Party in the 1945 elections. After that, he became Leader of the Opposition. Under Churchill, the Conservative Party went back to power again in 1951. He served as the prime minister and retired in 1955. After the victory in the 1951 general election, the Conservative Party continued to support part of Labour's "welfare state" policies and industry nationalization programme, although Winston Churchill and his next few successors, Anthony Eden, Harold Macmillan and Sir Alec Douglas-Home, went on to encourage liberal trade regulations and less state involvement during the 1950s and early 1960s.

Party leadership since the 1970s

Edward Heath served as prime minister of the United Kingdom from 1970 to 1974. His government was well known for its success to help Britain to join the EEC in 1971. But his government also saw many problems, among which, the most serious one can be the miners' strike. In order to ease the tension and win public support, Heath called the next general election in February 1974. However, no party won an overall majority in the election. After failing to convince Liberal to form a coalition government, Heath resigned as prime minister. In the October 1974 election, Labour won with a majority of seats.



Sir Winston Churchill, twice Prime Minister of the United Kingdom.

Margaret Thatcher

In February 1975 Margaret Thatcher defeated Heath in the party's leadership election and became the first female leader to lead a major political party in the United Kingdom and to serve as Leader of the Opposition in the House of Commons. In May 1979, Margaret Thatcher became the first female prime minister of the United Kingdom. As prime minister, Thatcher established a political ideology which was known as the "New Right" or "Thatcherism". The new government promised solemnly to check and reverse Britain's economic decline, which was characterized by a combination of high inflation, high unemployment and slow growth. By the end of her first term, inflation was controlled and economic recovery started gradually. However, unemployment rate was still high, which therefore made Thatcher's popularity decline. The re-election of the government was only ensured by an unexpected event: the Falklands War (1982). In June 1983, the government succeeded in being re-elected. The second term sew even more problems. The government was challenged by miners' strike in 1984-85 under militant leadership and Labour's bitter resistance to the government's trade union reforms. In the end, all the problems were solved and Thatcher's reform was ensured. In October 1984, the Irish Republican Army made an attempt to murder Margaret Thatcher by planting a bomb in her hotel in Brighton during the Conservative Party conference. Luckily, she survived the bombing

assassination attempt. The economy continued to improve during the 1983-1987. The government began to carry out a policy of selling state assets. The British 1980s' privatizations were the first of their kind and were found influential around the world.

With the strong economy, she was re-elected for an unprecedented third term in June 1987. During her third term, she took measures to reform the education system, tax system and National Health Service. Among the measures, the new tax system, the Community Charge, or "poll tax" as it was dubbed by opponents, was the most controversial and unpopular one. What's more, there was profound disagreement within the government over policy towards the European Community and her views concerning the European Community were not shared by others in her Cabinet.

She resigned as prime minister on 28 November 1990. John Major succeeded her and served in the post until 1997.



Margaret Thatcher, Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (1979-1990).

John Major

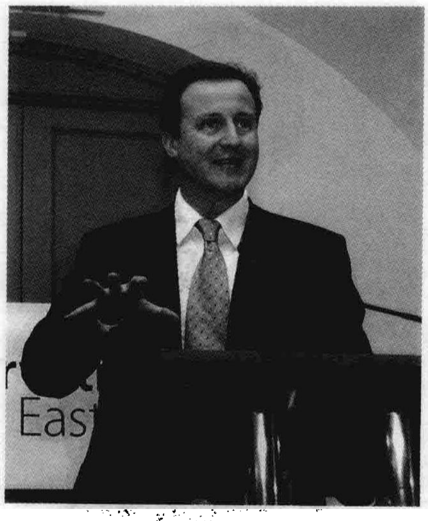
After Margaret Thatcher's resignation, John Major became leader of the Conservative Party and prime minister of the United Kingdom in 1990, a post he held until 1997. As the newly-elected prime minister, Major focused on party integrity and took measures to achieve it by naming his electoral opponents to Cabinet positions. Major gained public support for his behavior during the Gulf War. He helped to replace the hated poll tax and designed the Citizen's Charter to improve public services. In order to keep the Cabinet united, he negotiated the Maastricht Treaty in Feb 1992. Major's first years in office witnessed a long economic recession (1990-1992). But it was note-worthy that under Major's leadership, the British economy recovered from the recession of 1990-1992 and the unemployment rate was on the decline. In 1997, however, Major lost the election by a landslide to Labor Party leader Tony Blair and resigned as prime minister. After the defeat, Major left the position as the leader of the party, and was succeeded by William Hague. William Hague was a strong debater, but he did not prove to be a capable prime minister. He resigned as party leader after the 2001 general election in which the Conservative Party was defeated by the Labour Party.

Iain Duncan Smith and Michael Howard

Duncan Smith became party leader of the Conservatives on 12 September 2001. However he was the first political leader to step down from his position after losing a motion of no confidence from his own parliamentary party. He stepped down as leader on 6 November 2003. Michael Howard won the position of party leadership unopposed on 6 November 2003 and he became the first Jew to lead a major British party. Howard resigned as party leader after the Conservative failure in the 2005 elections and his next successor was David Cameron.

David Cameron

David William Donald Cameron became the leader of the Conservative Party and Leader of the



David Cameron, leader of the Conservative Party.

Opposition on 6 December 2005. He has held both positions until now. Cameron describes himself as a "modern compassionate conservative". After he took the position, he has pledged to reform and realign the Conservatives into a new style. He is advocating a more centre-right stance towards British politics. Under David Cameron, party policy has increasingly concentrated on "social" and "quality of life" issues such as the environment, government services and schools. Cameron has made remarks that he does not intend to resist the government and its policies as a matter of course, and will provide his support in areas of agreement.

Liberal Democrats

Founding

The Liberal Democrats were founded on 2 March 1988 by a merger of the Liberal Party and the Social Democratic Party (SDP). The Liberals originated from the British Whig Party, the Radicals and the Peelites. The Social Democratic Party was a Labour splinter group.

After the rise of the Labour Party, the Liberals met unexpected challenges to their place in the British politics and declined to third party status in the 1980s. When the Labour Party followed hard-line socialist policies, a group of moderate Labour MPs withdrew from it and founded the Social Democratic Party. The SDP and the Liberals thought that there was no hope for the two political parties so they decided to form the SDP-Liberal Alliance to make sure that they would not oppose each other in elections. The leaders of the Alliance were David Steel from the Liberal Party and Roy Jenkins, a member of SDP. Later, Jenkins was replaced by David Owen, also a member of SDP. The two parties held their individual policies and emphases, but created a joint manifesto for the 1983 and 1987 general elections.

Facing unsatisfying results in the 1987 election, Steel raised the issue to merge the two parties and he drew support from a majority of members of both parties. The two parties formally merged in 1988 and appointed Steel and Robert Maclennan joint interim leaders. The name of the new party was Social and Liberal Democrats, which was shortened to The Democrats in October 1988. It became Liberal Democrats in October 1989, which is usually shortened to Lib Dems.

Post-1988 history

Paddy Ashdown (1988—1999)

Paddy Ashdown was chosen to be the leader of the Liberal Democratic Party in 1988 with the majority of the vote. He took office at a difficult time. The Alliance of Liberals and Social Democrats had not performed well in the 1987 general election and a planned merger of the two parties resulted in divisions in both parties. According to the opinion polls, only 6 per cent supported the party and membership of the party declined. Despite all that, by the early 1990s, the party was getting recovered under Ashdown's leadership. Ashdown led the Liberal Democrats into 1992 and 1997 general elections. In the 1992 general election, the party won 18 per cent of the vote. In the 1997 election, the Liberal Democrats gained 46 seats, which can be seen as their best electoral performance since the 1920s. However, in spite of the better performance, the Liberal Democrats were still not a significant party in

the Parliament and they had to maintain an even stance between the other two major parties, Labour and Conservative Parties. Ashdown was in favor of traditional Liberal policies of constitutional reform, Europe, and partnership in industry and guided the party to more market-orientated economic policies. Since Tony Blair became Labour leader in 1994, Ashdown turned to be an advocate of cooperation between the Liberal Democrats and "New Labour" with the aim to form a coalition government. However, after Labour's victory in the 1997 general election, this idea ended in vain.

Charles Kennedy (1999—2006)

On 9 August 1999, Charles Kennedy was elected leader of the Liberal Democrats after Paddy Ashdown retired from his position. He led the party to two general elections. In the 2001 general election, the Liberal Democrats improved their vote share to 18.3% and their seats to 52. They gained support from former Labour and Conservative voters owing to their policies on issues concerning attitudes towards the war in Iraq and support for civil liberties, electoral reform, and open government. At the 2005 general election, the Liberal Democrats won 22.1% of the vote and 62 seats, their highest number of the vote since the 1920s. However, at the same time, Charles Kennedy was faced with criticism concerning his laid-back leadership style and his drinking problem. As a result of his open admission of a drinking problem, his image was seriously damaged within the parliamentary party. Kennedy resigned from his position on 7 January.

Menzies Campbell (2006—2007)

Following Kennedy's resignation, Deputy Leader Sir Menzies Campbell was chosen as interim leader and was elected as leader on 2 March 2006 under the single transferable vote method. In February 2006, before Campbell won the election to be the party leader, the Liberal Democrats was thrilled by winning the Dunfermline and West Fife seat from Labour in a by-election. This was seen as a major victory for Campbell but as an unexpected blow to then Labour Chancellor Gordon Brown since he lives in the constituency and represents the adjacent seat. Campbell left office on 15 October 2007 and Vince Cable became acting leader of the Liberal Democrats until the next leadership election was held. Cable was highly praised during his tenure as acting party leader. He was popular in the party as well as the media for his excellent performances at Prime Minister's Questions, his attitudes towards the Northern Rock crisis, HMRC's loss of child benefit data and the 2007 party donation scandal.

Nick Clegg (2007—present)

On 18 December 2007, Nick Clegg was elected to be the leader of the Liberal Democrats with a majority of 511 votes and became the fourth leader of the party. Soon after election, Clegg carried out a reshuffle of the party's Frontbench Team. He made Chris Huhne the Home Affairs spokesperson, Ed Davey the Foreign Affairs spokesperson, and kept Vincent Cable as Shadow Chancellor. He also gave positions to his predecessors: he made Campbell join the all-party Commons foreign affairs select committee, and appointed Kennedy the president of the UK's European Movement.

In his acceptance speech, Clegg stated that he was "a liberal by temperament, by instinct and by upbringing" and that he believed "Britain [is] a place of tolerance and pluralism". Clegg pledged to modernize the Liberal Democrats while at the same time to maintain its traditions of political and philosophical Liberalism.



Nick Clegg: Leader from 2007 to present

Since he assumed office, Clegg became a proponent of the ideas of improving the National Health Service (NHS); cutting a substantial tax in order to ensure people could "put more money back into the pockets of people"; offering compulsory English lessons to all long-term immigrants; introducing the euro into the UK; protecting the environment; abandoning Britain's Trident missile defence system in 2010; working out fixed terms for every parliament; passing more power to local councils and giving constituents the power to dismiss their MP if they fail to meet their expectations; defending civil liberties. He also proposed to double the number of Lib Dem MPs within two elections.

In May 2009, the party surpassed Labour in an opinion poll (25% *vs* 22%) for the first time since 1987. Clegg thus became the first Liberal Democrat leader to exceed Labour in an opinion poll. According to the opinion polls during the early 2010, it has suggested that a hung parliament may be possible. Nick Clegg has mentioned his consideration to form a coalition government with the Conservatives on the condition that they fail to win enough seats to form a majority. However, in the mean while senior party members have given warnings to Clegg that forming a coalition with the Tories may cause division in the Liberal Democrats.

Ⅱ. Pressure groups

Pressure groups refer to the organizations or collections of individuals that hold the same values and beliefs based on their ethnicity, religion, political philosophy or a common goal. They can also be described as "interest groups", "lobby groups" or "protest groups".

Pressure groups often stand for viewpoints of people who are not content with the current circumstances in society, and they often stand for the not so prevailing current of thought in the mainstream population. By means of forming a pressure group, people pursue the chance to express their beliefs and values and influence their communities, various corporations as well as local and national governments.

Pressure groups are different from political parties. Political parties are in pursuit of being elected to public office, while pressure groups make attempts to influence political parties. Pressure groups mainly focus on specialized issues, while political parties tend to deal with various issues.

In Britain, the number of political parties is very small, whereas the number of pressure groups amounts to thousands. During recent years, the membership of political parties has declined. However, the membership of pressure groups is on the rise. Pressure groups are not of uniform size. Some pressure groups can be huge organizations, for instance, the CBI (Confederation of British Industry), which stands for the interests of 200,000 British businesses. However, pressure groups can also be small and single-issue organizations, such as CLARA (Central Area Leamington Resident's Association), which is a locally based organization and it represents no more than 300 households to pursue policies to improve and develop the town of Leamington Spa.

Pressure groups may use various strategies to accomplish their goals, for instance, lobbying elected officials, media advocacy, and direct political action. Often pressure groups will form coalitions with their rival pressure groups to achieve their common goal more effectively. Obviously, some pressure groups have greater influence than others. The extent to which such groups can reach their goals may rely on their ability to be regarded as legitimate organizations by the population, media, and by the people in power. Civil rights groups, trade unions, and professional associations are examples of this kind of pressure groups as they are recognized and accepted by the public and government to a great degree.

In British politics, pressure groups play an important part in the democratic process. Pressure groups provide people with the opportunities to express their opinions and desires for change. In this way, the democratic process is greatly strengthened.

According to their different aims, pressure groups can be divided into two categories, Sectional pressure groups and Promotional pressure groups.

Sectional pressure groups represent the common interests and rights of a particular group of people. The National Union of Teachers (NUT), the Society of Motor Manufacturers and Traders, the British Medical Association (BMA), the Confederation of British Industry, Trades Union Congress and the Law Society are examples of sectional groups. Since sectional groups aim to stand for the interests of a particular section of society, members are usually composed of, for instance, lawyers or teachers, etc.

Promotional pressure groups strive to realize a particular cause. For this reason they are sometimes called "cause" groups. Promotional pressure groups do not focus on causes concerning specific rights of human beings, but rather causes which are supported by everyone. Examples of promotional/cause pressure groups are Shelter, Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament (CND), Friends of the Earth, Worldwide Fund for Natureand Greenpeace. Their membership usually has no restrictions and is open for all the people. Cause groups can be divided into two kinds according to their different aims. They are sectional cause groups which aim to protect the interests of a particular section of society and attitude cause groups which aim to alter people's attitudes about a specific issue or policy.

Wyn Grant, one of Britain's leading analysts of pressure groups, raised the idea of classifying pressure groups into insider and outsider groups according to their status and methods.

Insider pressure groups are closely associated with policy makers and are often sought advice from. Insider pressure groups are considered legitimate by the local and national government. For that reason, they could have access to the regular meetings with ministers or civil servants and they are able to use direct ways to exercise their influence. Sectional pressure groups are more likely to be insider pressure groups than promotional groups, though it is not always the case. Insider pressure groups generally follow the "rules of the game". For example, they will not usually make public attacks on ministers.

Insider groups consist of two categories. One category are institutions within the state apparatus. Examples of this category are the Church of England and the police force. The other category are external groups with insider status. Unlike institutions within the state apparatus, external groups with insider status are not consulted in the discussion process of governmental proposals. They are the independent organizations such as trade unions, charities or pressure groups. They are called upon by the government only when expertise is needed.

Compared with insider pressure groups, outsider pressure groups don't have so many advantages. They could not participate in the governmental decision making process. Thus, they have fewer opportunities to influence the direction of policy. Outsider groups can be further divided into two

categories. The first category are outsider groups aiming for insider status. Generally, they are often closely associated with the opposition in Parliament and they tend to wait for the situation to materialize. Besides, the other category of outsider groups do not aim for insider status since they have no interest in approaching governmental decision makers.

Glossary

referendum 公民投票
association 联合,结合
gentry 绅士,上等人
merger 合并
implementation 贯彻,执行
enfranchise 给予选举权
proletariat 工人阶级,无产阶级
ideology 意识形态
alliance 结盟,同盟
recession 经济衰退
catastrophic 灾难性的
expel 驱逐
coalition 联合政府
deputy 副手,代理人
overwhelming 压倒性的
nationalize 国有化
utility 公用事业设备
haulage 公路货运业
colonial 殖民地的
decolonize 使非殖民化
strive 奋斗
restraint 抑制
manifesto 宣言
pledge 发誓
consecutive 连续的
exchequer 财政部
axis 轴线
nationalization 国有化
EEC *abbr.* the European Economic Community 欧洲经济共同体
solemnly 庄严地
reverse 推翻
bitter 难以接受的
assassination 暗杀
asset 资产
privatization 私有化
unprecedented 空前的
dub 给……起绰号
integrity 完整,完善
motion 提议
compassionate 同情
realign 再结盟
originate 起源于
radical 激进分子
peelite 皮尔派保守党员
splinter 分裂支派
hard-line 采取强硬态度的
interim 过渡期间的
stance 姿态;立场
advocate 拥护,主张
laid-back 安详的,轻松地
blow 打击
acting 暂时接任的
tenure 任期
HMRC HM Revenue &Customs 英国税务海关总署
predecessor 前任
temperament 性情
instinct 直觉
pluralism 多元主义
proponent 支持者
euro 欧元
ethnicity 种族特点
lobby 游说
prevailing 盛行很广的
legitimate 合法的
disarmament 解除武装
materialize 成为现实

Cultural Notes

1. **Zinoviev Letter** The term refers to a document published by the British press in 1924, which was sent from Grigori Zinoviev, president of the Communist International in Moscow to then Communist Party of Great Britain. Later, the letter was proved to be forged and its purpose was to bring down the Labour government of Ramsay MacDonald in the October elections.
2. **Winter of Discontent** "Winter of Discontent" is a term used to describe the events in Britain during the winter of 1978-1979. During that period of time, there were widespread strikes by several public sector unions over the government's incomes policy.
3. **William Pitt the Younger** William Pitt, the Younger was a British politician of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. He became the youngest prime minister in 1783 at the age of 24. In order to distinguish him from his father William Pitt the Elder, he is usually known as "William Pitt the Younger".
4. **Human Rights Act** The Human Rights Act 1998 is an Act of British Parliament which gained Royal Assent on 9 November 1998, and mostly took effect on 2 October 2000. It aims to "give further effect" in UK law to the rights contained in the European Convention on Human Rights.
5. **Freedom of Information Act** The Freedom of Information Act 2000 is an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. It has implemented freedom of information legislation in the United Kingdom on a national level. It introduces a public "right to know" in relation to public bodies. The full provisions of the act went into effect on 1 January 2005.
6. **Thatcherism** Thatcherism gives a description of the ideology, policies and political style of the British Conservative politician Margaret Thatcher, who was leader of her party from 1975 to 1990 and prime minister from May 1979 to November 1990.
7. **Falklands War** The Falklands War, also known as the Falklands Conflict or Falklands Crisis, was fought in April 1982 between Argentina and the United Kingdom over control of the disputed Falkland Islands and South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands. The war broke out on Friday, 2 April 1982 when Argentine invaded and occupied the area of the Falkland Islands and South Georgia. The war lasted 74 days with the Argentine surrender in the end.
8. **Community Charge** The Community Charge, commonly known as "poll tax", was a system of taxation which was introduced in Scotland in 1989 and England and Wales in 1990 by the then ruling Conservative government to fund government. It provided for a single flat-rate per-capita tax on every adult and the rate was set by the local authority. The tax was greatly unpopular and was replaced by Council Tax in 1993.
9. **Gulf War** The Gulf War, also known as the First Gulf War happened on 2 August 1990 with the invasion of Kuwait by Iraqi troops, which was met with international condemnation. Then United Nations authorized a coalition force from 34 nations against Iraq, with the purpose of expelling Iraqi forces from Kuwait. The war ended on 28 February 1991.
10. **Citizen's Charter** The Citizen's Charter was initiatively launched by the then prime minister, John

Major, on 22 July 1991 with the aim to improve public services in the UK.

11. **Maastricht Treaty** The Maastricht Treaty, formally known as the Treaty on European Union, was signed on 7 February 1992 in Maastricht, the Netherlands. It came into force on 1 November 1993 during the Delors Commission. It reached an agreement that created the European Union and brought about the creation of the euro. It has been amended by later treaties.
12. **Single Transferable Vote** The single transferable vote (STV) is a voting system which is designed to minimize "wasted" votes. It provides proportional representation and ensures that votes are clearly cast for individual candidates rather than party lists. It achieved its purpose by the use of multi-seat constituencies and by transferring votes that would be wasted on sure losers or winners to other qualified candidates.
13. **Northern Rock crisis** During the financial crisis of 2007-2010, the Northern Rock bank had great problem in the credit markets. On 14 September 2007, it received help from the Bank of England. On 22 February 2008 the bank was nationalised by the British Government because of financial problems caused by the subprime mortgage crisis.

Questions for Discussion

1. Does Britain have a two-party system?
2. Why has the Labour Party been more prone to splits and factions than the Conservative Party? Is this true?
3. Do interest groups enhance democracy? Why or why not?
4. Why are some pressure groups more powerful than others?
5. Which is likely to be the most successful in pressing its cause, insider groups and outsider groups?

Supplementary Reading

After Blair, new Labour must find a new project or perish

All eyes are on The Date. When will Tony Blair leave No 10? The media are fixated with it. Many in the Labour party appear equally addicted. They are focused on the wrong thing. It is not the date of Blair's departure that will shape the future of British politics. It is The Debate about what happens when he does depart.

Of course, the obsessing about the prime minister's longevity reflects a mood of uncertainty among Labour MPs. This period is Labour's toughest in almost 10 years of office. Controversy over Iraq, Lebanon and aspects of domestic policy have combined to produce a clamour from some quarters for Blair to go - and go now. Or, if not, to name the date.

It is as if Blair alone is the problem and his departure is the sole solution. Ominous warnings of a Thatcher-style frogmarched exit are being sounded. Of course, such dark threats conveniently forget that when Margaret Thatcher left Downing Street the Conservatives were more than 20% behind in the polls.

And whereas she was going on and on and on, Blair — uniquely for any prime minister — has said that he is not. As he reiterated last week, instead he will give ample time for his successor ahead of the next election. He is right to resist pressure to go any further.

There is a different lesson that Labour should draw from Thatcher's downfall. I became an MP in 1992 shortly after the transition to John Major. Oddly enough, amid the despondency of a fourth Labour election defeat I felt hope. Looking across at the Tory benches in the House of Commons I saw a party fatally wounded by divisions over direction and a mish-mash of policy. In their headlong rush to change their leader the Conservatives had failed to resolve or update what they stood for in a changed world. They went for the date but avoided the debate. Electoral catastrophe inevitably followed.

In other words, electing a new leader is not a political panacea. Replacing Blair will not in itself renew Labour. Renewal means more than changing the guard. It means updating policy and purpose so that it is in tune with the modern world. That requires the debate.

Here, too, there are important lessons from the recent past. After our 1992 defeat many thought that Labour could never win again. What changed was that we did. Building on the legacy of Neil Kinnock and John Smith, Blair's courage in radically changing his party was the crucial step that took us to power.

New Labour was created around the insight that for progressive values to be realised they had to be applied in new ways. And after almost a decade in power — notwithstanding obvious problems — Britain feels stronger and fairer as a result. Poverty has declined. Wages have risen. Prosperity has increased.

New Labour was formed as a modern centrist progressive party through a genuine process of debate and renewal — not just a new leader but a new constitution, new politics and new policies. After a decade in office it is time to debate and renew again. The priority now is to determine Labour's post-Blair purpose and policy. And to do so before any leadership contest.

The debate should be open to all comers. The public would look on askance if Labour's future policy direction was hammered out behind closed doors or by a block vote rather than through an open process. Reconnecting government policy with how people live their lives today requires more transparent politics, involving not just all parts of the Labour party but the wider public as well. The debate can serve to demonstrate that Labour is in touch and has wind in its sails.

There is, and can be, no monopoly on wisdom. Recent contributions from Gordon Brown, Stephen Byers and Charles Clarke reflect the start of the unstoppable process of discussion about what that future will hold. I suspect that Labour's conference later this month will see a further flowering of ideas and proposals, particularly from the new generation of younger ministers and MPs. In particular it is incumbent on all those with ambitions to lead (or deputy lead) the Labour party not just to throw their hats in the ring but also to put ideas on the table. A Trappist vow of silence will not work.

The debate is something to welcome, not fear. Of course there are dangers in every contribution being seen through the Blair-Brown media prism. Everyone is acutely aware that split parties lose elections. The best way of sidestepping that trap is to avoid the nonsensical notion that debate is somehow factionalist. Charting a course for the future is not a luxury, it is a necessity for any party serious about winning. Indeed, it would be faintly bizarre if the Labour party after a decade in government did not have a debate about the next decade.

The challenges that new Labour faced in 1997 are very different from those faced today. By way of

illustration you only have to look at the leftist bible of the mid-1990s, The State We're In by Will Hutton, with its plea for a new marriage between economic vibrancy and social justice. That has been new Labour's motif for a decade or more.

Or take the challenges that Peter Mandelson, one of new Labour's principal architects, identified in The Blair Revolution which he co-authored 10 years ago: economic prosperity alongside reforms in health, education and welfare systems, constitutional change and a new relationship with Europe. People may quibble about the detail but in good part these challenges have been met.

The more interesting thing is what is missing from them. How we respond to globalisation, not by resorting to economic protectionism but through open markets, free trade and a new accent on skills and employability. How we build genuinely inclusive societies when there are huge pressures going in the opposite direction, notably a widening gap between rich and poor. How we deal with the causes and consequences of global terrorism and get the trade-offs right between protecting wider society and defending civil liberties. How we avoid racial conflict in an era of global migration. How we deal with the challenge of demographic and environmental change. And, in particular, how we fulfil the desire people have for greater control in their lives whether through more choice over how services are delivered or through a better balance between work and family life. These were not the main challenges then. But they are now.

As the pace of change in the world has quickened, so the pace of change in politics needs to quicken too. Those who fail to keep up get left behind. For governments, in particular, the focus tends to be on the here and now. But in the end politics is about the future. Governments that do not talk about the future — still less have ownership of it — pretty rapidly find they do not have one.

Values in politics are immutable. But policies need to change with the times. So as the debate over future direction gathers pace there should be no no-go areas. Narrowing inequality. Devolving power. Extending ownership. Beating crime. Immigration control. Environmental protection. Benefits restructuring. Individual budgets. And yes, tax reform. They must all be on the new Labour agenda.

The danger otherwise is that the Conservatives' policy review comes up with the modern solutions that Britain needs. That would leave Labour with a rear-view mirror approach to winning the next election — relying only on what has been done in the past when in a world of ever faster change it is what the parties have to say about the future that counts.

There is another, even bigger danger. We can all agree on the need for renewal. The question is which direction renewal takes us. For some, renewal is code for retreat. It is about higher taxes, not lower. More state control, not less. Less reform, not more. A return to the past, not a focus on the future.

New Labour faces a fundamental moment of choice. To move forward or go back. With David Cameron starting to signal a move to the centre ground, it seems to me to be a no-brainer. Advancing, not retreating, is the surest way not just to exacerbate the tensions between Cameron and his party but also to rebuild the coalition of support that produced Labour victories in 1997, 2001 and 2005. Cameron can be beaten, but not by vacating the territory that new Labour has fought so hard to win. We need more new Labour policy, not less.

Forget The Date. It's The Debate that matters.

Further Reading

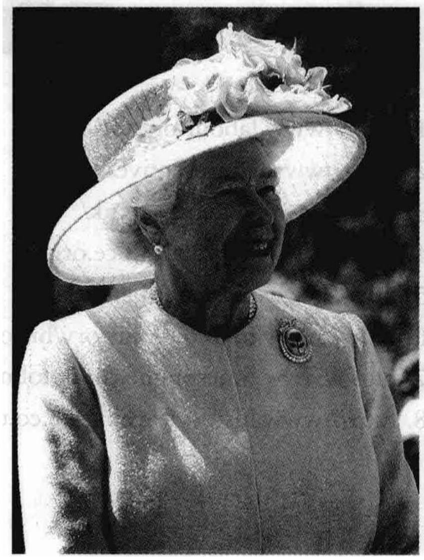
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Chapter 5

Constitutional Monarchy and the Royal Family



导 读
Introduction

君主立宪制又称立宪君主制，是相对于君主独裁制的一种国家体制。君主立宪制是在保留君主制的前提下，通过订立宪法，限制君主权力，实现共和政体的一种政体。英国是世界上较早确立君主立宪制的国家。英国的君主立宪制是在英国光荣革命后建立起来的，大约为 13 世纪中期。光荣革命以后，议会通过《权利法案》和《王位继承法》，开始从法律上限制王权。事实上，国王（女王）处于统而不治的地位，其存在主要是作为国家的象征。伊丽莎白二世为英国现任君主。除英国外，女王同时也是 15 个英联邦国家的元首。伊丽莎白二世育有三子一女。长子查尔斯王子、次子安德鲁王子、三子爱德华王子、女儿安妮公主。查尔斯王子和他的两个儿子威廉王子、哈里王子分别是排名第一、第二、第三位的王室继承人。作为凝聚国家力量的象征，英国皇室并不具备实质性权力。拥有国王/女王陛下(HM)或者王子/公主殿下头衔(HRH)的一般都被视为王室成员。本章主要从英国君主立宪制的历史、英国女王介绍、英国王室公众角色与形象、王室财政、称号与头衔、王位继承、王室居住地、王室侍从几部分展开具体介绍。

Ⅰ. The history of constitutional monarchy

Constitutional monarchy is a form of government in which a monarch acts as head of state and the power of the monarch (the king or queen) is limited by a parliament, by law, or by custom. It is different from absolute monarchy in which an absolute monarch exercises complete control over all aspects of government and serves as the only source of political power in the state and is not legally bound by any constitution.

Most constitutional monarchies have a parliamentary system in which the monarch is head of state and only exercises ceremonial duties or may have reserve powers, but a prime minister is head of government and exercises effective political power.

The United Kingdom is a constitutional monarchy. The monarch is head of state. In practice, the sovereign reigns, but does not rule. The country is governed in the name of the sovereign.

Magna Carta began the process of reducing the political powers of the monarch. Magna Carta, or Great Charter, was originally issued in the year 1215. Resentful of King John's abuses of power, the barons of England revolted against him and demanded a dignified recognition of their rights. At Runnymede on 15 June 1215, John surrendered and gave his consent to the Magna Carta. Magna Carta required King John of England to declare that he would proclaim certain rights, respect certain legal procedures, and accept that his will would be bound by the law. Magna Carta was the first attempt of the King's subjects (the barons) to limit the powers of King. In practice, Magna Carta mostly did not limit the power of Kings; but by the time of the English Civil War it had become an important symbol that the King was bound by the law. The charter's achievement and significance have been immense. For the first time in British history, royal rights have begun to be limited.

The Case of Proclamations was a High Court of England and Wales decision during the reign of King James I (1603—1625) which imposed some restrictions on the Royal Prerogative at that time. The case is generally regarded by some historians and jurists as a very influential case in the development of the concept of judicial review in English common law. However, the issue about the extent of the royal prerogative was not properly settled until the Bill of Rights 1689 "established that the powers of the Crown were subject to law, and there were no powers of the Crown which could not be taken away or controlled by statute".

In England's Glorious Revolution of 1688, King James II, a Roman Catholic who had acted like an absolute monarch, was overthrown, and Parliament replaced him with his daughter Mary and her husband, known as Protestant Mary II and William III. Participants had differing aims. Tories and Anglican clergy wanted to prevent James from weakening the church. Whigs aimed to remove James and limit the powers of the crown. Some historians see the Glorious Revolution as a Whig victory that established limited monarchy in England.

On 13 February 1689, Parliament prepared a Declaration of Rights and presented it to William and Mary. If they accepted the declaration, Parliament would let them ascend the throne of England. Parliament then added several clauses to the declaration and formally enacted the amended bill as the Bill of Rights on 16 December 1689.

The title of the Bill of Rights is An Act Declaring the Rights and Liberties of the Subject and Settling the Succession of the Crown. It is often called the English Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights gave a new definition to the relationship between monarch and subjects. The statute abolished the royal power of the monarch to suspend laws or levy taxation or customs duties without Parliament's consent and forbade the monarch to raise and maintain a standing army during peacetime without parliamentary consent. These events were significant events in the gradual process by which practical powers were handed over from the monarch to Parliament. By its provisions and implications it gave political supremacy to Parliament. More importantly, it advocated fundamental liberties, including freedom of elections, freedom of debate in Parliament, and freedom from excessive bail and from cruel and unusual punishments. The Bill of Rights was later supplemented by the Act of Settlement in 1701.

The Bill of Rights became one of the cornerstones of the unwritten English constitution and it contributed a great deal to the establishment of the concept of parliamentary sovereignty as well as the ultimate establishment of constitutional monarchy in UK.

Ⅱ. Monarch

Princess Elizabeth Alexandra Mary was born on 21April, 1926, in London. She is the eldest child of the Duke of York and his wife, Elizabeth. She is a direct descendent and the 32nd great-granddaughter of King Alfred the Great who was the King of England 871-899. She became heir presumptive when her uncle, Edward VIII, abdicated the throne and her father became king as George VI. She was educated privately, and began to undertake official duties at 16. During World War II she was allowed to join the Auxiliary Territorial Service. She became a state counselor at the age of 18. On 20 November, 1947, she married Philip Mountbatten, duke of Edinburgh. Upon the death of George VI in 1952 she succeeded to the throne and was crowned on 2 June 1953.

Elizabeth II is not only Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, but also Queen of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Jamaica, Barbados, the Bahamas, Grenada, Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, Tuvalu, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Antigua and Barbuda, Belize, and Saint Kitts and Nevis where she is represented by Governors-General. The sixteen countries are known as Commonwealth of Nations or informally known as Commonwealth Realms.

Elizabeth performs her duties in accordance with lines designed by her father, George VI: diligence, duty, dignity, and compassion. She is greatly influenced by her father, which can be shown by her involvement of the whole family in her duties.

What's more, the Queen has also been greatly influenced by her strong-willed and perspicacious husband to start some new trends toward modernization and openness in the monarchy. As she becomes more aware of the role of the monarchy in the modern time, she has begun to promote simplicity in court life and become interested in state affairs. Her efforts have not been in vain. The Queen and her activities have gained widespread respect and attention of her people. The prime ministers once served under her, especially Harold Wilson and James Callaghan, spoke highly of her knowledge of state affairs, which was gained by her extensive reading of state papers.

After she acceded to the throne, the Queen has done her endeavor to make the British monarchy more modern, more open, and more accessible. She gave up the formal presentation of debutantes while started to use the informal Buckingham Palace luncheons to invite many eminent figures in different fields. What's more, she became interested in using the broadcast media, which can be shown in her yearly Christmas television messages, in royally approved documentaries and the two Jubilee presentations as well as in television broadcasts of the royal weddings. Her most famous effort was the "walkabout", which she started in 1970. She left her car to meet, shake hands as well as chat with the common people around her. This is a true illustration of her conviction "I have to be seen to be believed." During her reign, extensive media coverage has helped the monarch be much closer to the British people and be greatly admired and respected by her people.

The Queen's private life and the changes of her circumstances have always had an effect upon her people and the public. In the early 1970s, the Queen requested to increase her civil list funding, which then caused much controversy in the public. Though it was reasonable that she could ask for an increase in her funds to fulfill her public duties, some people considered her request unthoughtful as she was one of the wealthiest women in the world. Even Richard Crossman, a supporter of the monarchy, openly

criticized that the Queen's income was subject to taxation. Regardless of the criticism, funding was raised.

During the early 1980s, the problem of the Queen's personal security arose. In June 1981, when the Queen was travelling to the Trooping the Color in London's Mall, she was nearly shot by an onlooker in the crowd who fired six bullets. Thirteen months later, Michael Fagan, an emotionally unstable and jobless man, tried to get into Buckingham Palace and finally he went into the Queen's bedroom. Since then, personal security was strengthened after the two incidents.

In the 1990s the marital problems of the Queen's sons and the death of Diana, Princess of Wales put the monarchy to much trouble.

The Queen is Head of State in the United Kingdom. As a constitutional monarch, the Queen exercises sweeping executive powers, known as the royal prerogative. In exercising these powers, the Queen is usually on the advice of the prime minister or other ministers. This principle can trace its history to the Restoration when the Victorian writer Walter Bagehot said "the queen reigns, but she does not rule". In other words, the monarch has ceremonial and formal functions and duties but no direct powers.

The precise scope of the royal prerogative has never been described in vivid detail, but it includes the following powers: to appoint and dismiss the prime minister; to appoint and dismiss other ministers; to call, prorogue and dissolve Parliament; to declare war and make peace; to command the armed forces of the United Kingdom; to organize the Civil Service; to make and ratify treaties; to issue, refuse, impound and revoke passports; to nominate bishops and archbishops of the Church of England; to create hereditary and life peers; grant most honors and mercy.

Within the Commonwealth Realms, reserve or prerogative powers are exercised by the monarch and her Governors-General. An example of a Governor General exercising his power was during the 1975 Australian constitutional crisis, commonly known as The Dismissal. On 11 November 1975, the Governor-General Sir John Kerr exercised his executive powers which were provided for in the Australian Constitution. He removed the Australian prime minister of the time, Gough Whitlam of the Australian Labor Party from his position and appointed the Leader of the Opposition Malcolm Fraser as caretaker prime minister. It has been considered as the greatest political and constitutional crisis in the history of Australia.

To appoint and dismiss the prime minister is regarded as the most important royal prerogative exercised by the Queen. The last time the monarch exercised the royal prerogative without referring to the Cabinet was in February 1974. The monarch appointed Harold Wilson as prime minister even when his party did not win an absolute majority of seats in the House of Commons. Queen Elizabeth II exercised her prerogative after she extensively consulted with the Privy Council. Queen Victoria became the last sovereign to veto an appointment relating to a government minister. In 1892, she did not act on the advice of the Prime Minister William Ewart Gladstone to include Henry Labouchère in the Cabinet for the reason that he was a radical who had insulted the royal family. Queen Anne was the last sovereign to refuse to give her royal assent to a bill that was passed by the House of Commons and House of Lords of the Parliament of Great Britain in spring 1708. The bill was the Scottish Militia Bill 1708.

The Royal Prerogative is limited and uncertain. This principle was established in the Case of Proclamations (1610), which held that no new prerogative can be created and individual prerogatives can be abolished by Parliament.

Queen Elizabeth II became Queen of the United Kingdom and Head of the Commonwealth on

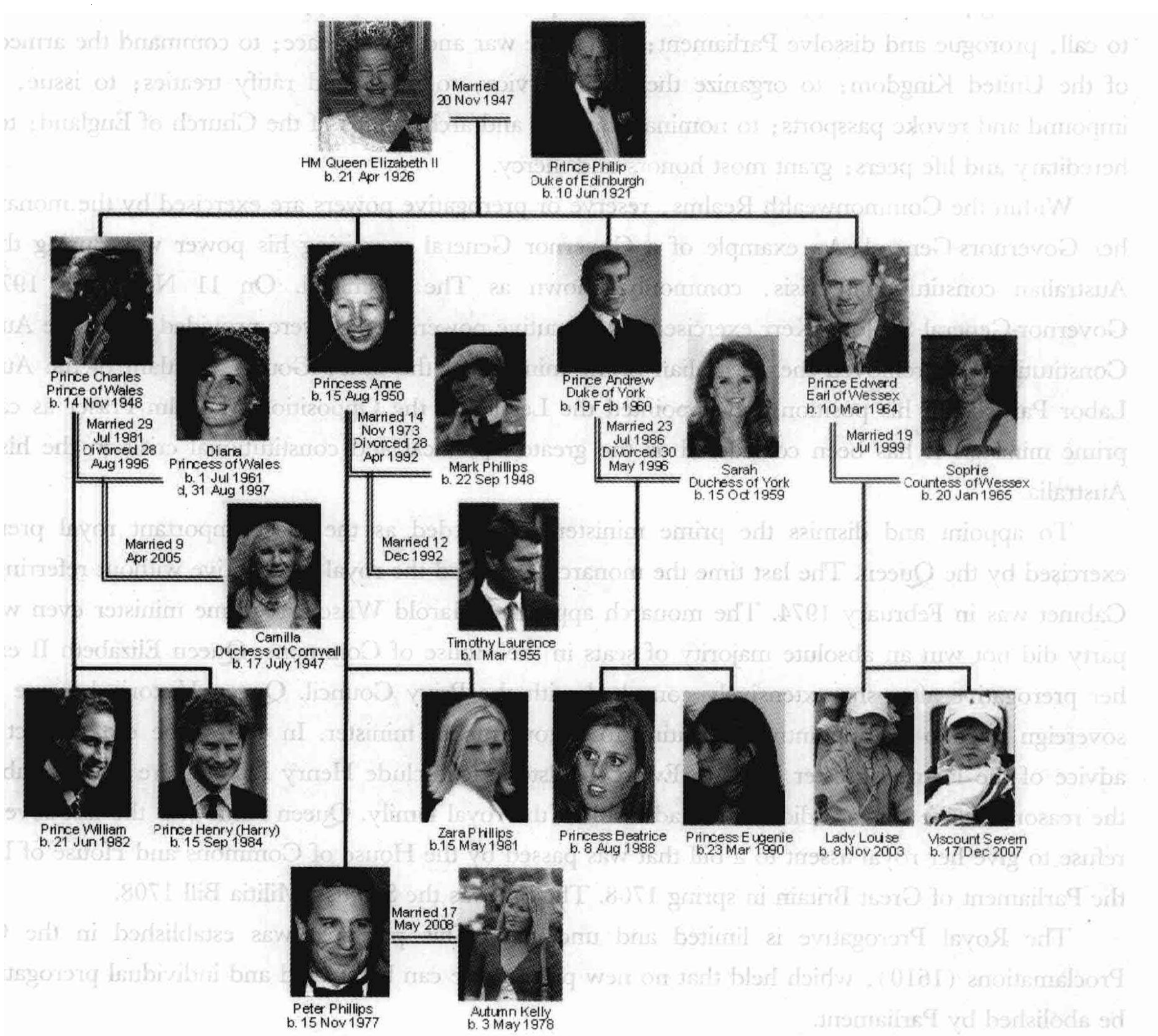
February 6, 1952. By now her reign has lasted for 58 years. On 20 November 2007 she became the first reigning sovereign to have been married for 60 years. On 21 December 2007 she became the oldest reigning British monarch who has lived longer than her great-great-grandmother Queen Victoria. On 5th March 2008 Queen Elizabeth II came to be the 3rd longest reigning monarch in more than 1,200 years of British history.

During more than five decades of her reign, enormous social changes and development have taken place. Through all this, the queen has devoted herself entirely to the duty and quiet pragmatism which has won her much respect and love of her people.

III. The Royal Family

The work of the monarch has become greater in amount. Thus the queen shared some of her duties with other members of the royal family who fulfill various public engagements.

The British royal family refers to the group of close relatives of the monarch of the United Kingdom.



A picture of royal family

In 1917, George V changed the name of the royal house from Saxe-Coburg and Gotha to Windsor. The House of Windsor is the current royal house of the United Kingdom and other Commonwealth realms. Members of the royal family are born into or are married into the House of Windsor.

In the United Kingdom there does not exist a clear or formal definition concerning who is or is not a member of the royal family. Hence, different lists include different people. However, those who carry the style His or Her Majesty (HM), or His or Her Royal Highness (HRH) are always considered members of the royal family. Therefore, the monarch, the consort of the monarch, the widowed consorts of previous monarchs, the children of the monarch, the male-line grandchildren of the monarch, and the spouses and the widowed spouses of a monarch's son and male-line grandsons are all considered the members of the royal family.

The Queen was married to Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh on 20 November 1947 at Westminster Abbey. The Queen is head of a large family. She has four children and eight grandchildren. Her four children are Prince Charles, Princess Anne, Prince Andrew, and Prince Edward.

Her first child and the current legal heir of the crown is Prince Charles, the Prince of Wales, who was born on 14 November 1948. He was given the title Prince of Wales at Caernarvon Castle on 1 July 1969. He married Lady Diana Spencer (Princess Diana) on 29 July 1981. Two sons Prince William and Prince Harry were born after their marriage. The newly weds' joy did not last long. In 1996 they divorced. After the divorce, Diana became more engaged in her public charity work. She was the first celebrity to work hard for AIDS charities. She was also strongly against landmines. The public loved her as she cared for others. She was gentle and caring while the royal family seemed cold and uncaring. Sadly, Diana's life ended abruptly. On 31August 1997, she died in a car crash in Paris. More than one billion people watched her funeral and millions of people were buried in sadness. She is still remembered for the love and care she gave to others and in many people's hearts she will always be the people's princess.

Prince Charles, the Prince of Wales, has experienced a period of unpopularity since Diana's death. But he has begun to show his inclination to meet the need of the public. The prince became closely involved in the work of many charities. Since the early 1980s, Charles has shown his concern for the environmental issues and begun to promote environmentally sensitive thinking. He sponsors The Prince's Trust, The Prince's Regeneration Trust, and the Prince's Foundation for the Built Environment. What's more, his care and concern for his two sons have won him nation-wide respect.

Public Role and Image

Today, the members of the British royal family fulfill ceremonial and social duties. But, unlike the monarch, they don't have constitutional role in the affairs of government.

Every year members of the royal family participate in a wide range of official engagements throughout the United Kingdom, which are recorded in the Court Circular. It may take months, even years to plan for some of the official engagements. As representatives of the Queen, they take an active part in the commemoration of historical events and holidays and sponsor and participate in a large number of charitable, cultural and social activities.

As part of the royal family, the younger generations are also found to be getting involved in those activities. Sentebale is a charity set up in April 2006 by Prince Seeiso of Lesotho and Prince Henry of

Wales with the aim to help vulnerable children and young people in Lesotho, especially those who have become orphans as a result of HIV and AIDS.

When the monarch is officially meeting with other heads of state, the members of the royal family will travel abroad on behalf of the UK to perform the state visits, which, thus, will draw great public attention. Their activities and roles have created a modern royal court.

Funding/royal finances

Head of State Expenditure

Head of State expenditure is the expenditure used to support the Queen to carry out her duties as head of state of the United Kingdom. It is from the Civil List.

According to the Royal Public Finances annual report, Head of State expenditure in the year 2008-2009 is at £41.5 million (including VAT of £2.1 million). In other words, in the year 2008-2009, the Queen cost the taxpayer 69 pence per person. It has decreased greatly during the past ten years, from £87.3 million in 1991-1992 to £41.5 million in 2008-09. The Head of State Expenditure does not include the cost of security.

In order to be transparent, the Royal Household publishes a yearly summary of Head of State expenditure and a detailed annual report on Royal public finances.

There are four sources of funding for the Queen, or officials of the Royal Household who are acting on behalf of the Queen. These are as follows: the Civil List, the Grants-in-Aid for upkeep of Royal Palaces and for Royal travel, the Privy Purse and the Queen's personal wealth and income.

Civil List

In the United Kingdom, the Civil List is the amount of money provided by British Parliament to meet the expenses of the British royal family, the purpose of which is to ensure that the monarch can perform his or her state duties. It includes the following parts: staffing, state visits, public engagements, official entertainment, and upkeep of the Royal Households.



Prince Charles



Diana

It was set during the reign of William and Mary and the original figure was £700, 000 per year. In 1760, after George III acceded to the throne, he and his government reached a consensus over the Crown Estate. The monarch should surrender his hereditary revenues from the Crown Estate to Parliament during his reign. In return, the Parliament would provide the monarch with a fixed annual payment, which is the Civil List today. The Crown Estate is now managed by the Crown Estate Commissioners and the revenue generated from it is paid to HM Treasury each year. For the period of 2000-2010, the Civil List is fixed at £7,900,000 per year.

Only the Queen and the Duke of Edinburgh receive funding from the Civil List. The Duke receives £359,000 per year.

For some members of the royal family who perform public duties, they also receive funds, known as Parliamentary Annuities.

The Duke of York: £249,000 per annum

The Earl and Countess of Wessex: £141,000 per annum

The Princess Royal: £228,000 per annum

The Duke and Duchess of Gloucester: £175,000 per annum

The Duke and Duchess of Kent: £236,000 per annum

Princess Alexandra £225,000 per annum

The funds are provided to manage office costs. These amounts are repaid by the Queen from her private funds.

Grants-in-Aid

Part of the Grants-in-Aid is used to cover the expenses of official travel through the Department of Transport. A separate grant is used to spend on the maintenance of the royal residences. They are: Buckingham Palace, St James's Palace, Clarence House, Marlborough House Mews, the residential and office areas of Kensington Palace, Windsor Castle and the buildings in the Home and Great Parks at Windsor, and Hampton Court Mews and Paddocks, as well as The Queen's Gallery.

Privy Purse and Duchy of Lancaster

Income from the Duchy of Lancaster is used to cover both official and private expenditure by the Queen, especially the official expenses not covered by the Civil List.

The Queen's Personal Wealth and Income

The Queen's personal income is used to pay for her private expenses.

Items like the Balmoral and Sandringham Estates are the Queen's private property, from which the Queen can gain an amount of personal income. However, items, such as Royal Palaces, the majority of art treasures from the Royal Collection and the Crown Jewels, are not the Queen's private possessions, thus, the Queen has no right to sell them. She can only pass them down to her successor.

Tax

In 1992, the Queen agreed to pay income tax and capital gains tax, though the details are of her free will and remain secret. As from 1993 the Queen's personal income has been taxed as any other taxpayer in Britain. The Queen's private estate, for instance, shareholdings, personal jewellery, Sandringham House and Balmoral Castle, will be taxed the inheritance tax, however bequests from sovereign to sovereign are free from tax.

Royal Styles and Titles

In the United Kingdom, only a king, a queen regnant, a queen consort, and a queen dowager can possess or use the style His Majesty or Her Majesty (HM).

According to the Letters Patent issued by George V on 30 November 1917 and published on 11 December 1917, the use of the style His Royal Highness or Her Royal Highness (HRH) and the title of prince or princess are restricted. Only the children of the sovereign, the children of the sons of the sovereign, and the eldest son of the eldest son of the Prince of Wales would be titled Princes or Princesses and styled Royal Highness.

In present, the Queen's children and the children of The Prince of Wales, The Duke of York and The Earl of Wessex are titled Princes or Princesses and styled Royal Highness. However, there is an exception to it. When Prince Edward got married in 1999, it was announced that his children would not use the title of Prince or Princess or the style Royal Highness and can only be styled as earl's children.

Usually, princesses do not pass their titles down to their children. However, there is an exception to this rule. In accordance with Letters Patent issued by George VI, his heir presumptive, Princess Elizabeth, could pass her title down to her children.

For those women who marry sons and male-line grandsons of a monarch, they are normally styled Her Royal Highness together with the feminized wording of their husbands' highest title. Diana, Prince Charles's first wife, possessed the title and style of "HRH The Princess of Wales" until her divorce with Prince Charles in 1996. On 31August 1997, she died in a car crash in Paris. Because of people's deep love and respect for Diana, it was declared that HRH The Duchess of Cornwall would not be entitled HRH The Princess of Wales. The public have been unwilling to support The Duchess of Cornwall, the second wife of The Prince of Wales. Hence, an announcement was made that when The Prince of Wales becomes King, his wife HRH The Duchess of Cornwall will not become HM The Queen but will take the title HRH The Princess Consort.

The daughters and male-line granddaughters of the monarch still hold their royal titles after they get married. But their husbands do not get or enjoy their wives' title and style.

Succession

Succession to the British throne is based on the principle of male preference primogeniture, under which, a person's male children are preferred over his or her female children, and elder children are preferred over younger children of the same gender.

Succession in the United Kingdom is also governed by statutes, such as the Bill of Rights 1689, the Act of Settlement 1701 and the Act of Union 1800. These laws have imposed restrictions to the rule of succession. The Act of Settlement 1701 states that those who are not legitimate descendants of Sophia, Electress of Hanover (1630—1714), have no right of succession. The Bill of Rights 1689 and the Act of Settlement 1701 exclude those who have ever been Roman Catholics, or who have married Roman Catholics from succeeding to the crown. However, their offspring have the right of succession.

The first four individuals in the line of succession are HRH The Prince of Wales, HRH Prince William of Wales, HRH Prince Henry of Wales, HRH the Duke of York.

During recent years there have been many discussions concerning changing the rules of succession to the throne, which include removing the religious restrictions and giving equal rights to males and females.

But there is still a long way to go.

Residence

Residences in the United Kingdom roughly fall into three categories: Official Royal residences, Private Estates and Unoccupied Royal residences.

Official Royal residences are held in trust for future rulers. They are not only homes for members of the royal family, but also working buildings for the staff of the Royal Household to serve official guests and hold formal events and important ceremonies. The best examples of these residences are Buckingham Palace and Windsor Castle.

Private Estates are the Queen's personal property and are often used to get personal income. Besides, some famous private residences are situated on the Private Estate, such as, Balmoral Castle and Sandringham House.

Unoccupied Royal residences are the rest buildings in Great Britain which once served as residences for members of the royal family. Many of these buildings are open to the general public. These residences are: the Tower of London, Hampton Court Palace, the Banqueting House, Kensington Palace and Kew Palace.

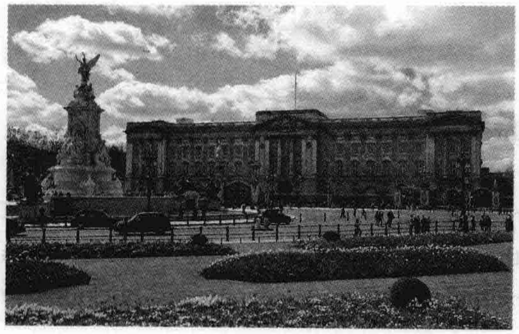
Buckingham Palace, located in Westminster, has been the official London residence of the British monarchs since 1837. Buckingham Palace is not only the home of the Queen and the Duke of Edinburgh but also the London residence of their immediate family. It is also the administrative headquarters of the monarch today. Most of the Royal Household's departments are based at Buckingham Palace, which support the Queen and The Duke of Edinburgh and their immediate family to fulfil duties and activities. The Palace is also in use for many Royal ceremonies, state visits and Investitures. What's more, many official events and receptions are also held in the Palace. The Buckingham Palace's nineteen State Rooms are open to visitors every year, as part of the Palace's Summer Opening. More than 50,000 people are invited as guests to join in banquets, lunches, dinners, receptions and the Royal Garden Parties held in the Palace each year.

Windsor Castle is located in Windsor, Berkshire, southern England. Windsor Castle serves as an official residence of the Queen. As the largest occupied castle in the world, the floor area of the castle is about 484,000 square feet (44,965 square metres). The Queen usually uses the castle both as a private home where she spends many weekends and as a royal residence where she carries out certain duties, such as holding state visits from overseas monarchs and presidents. The traditional State Banquet is given in the castle. Many Royal weddings as well as funerals have taken place in the castle. Besides, many departments of the Royal Household are based at Windsor Castle. Windsor Castle is also a popular tourist attraction. Many parts of the Castle are open to the public. Changing of the Guard, also called Guard Mounting, provides an interesting sight for the public.

Balmoral Castle is situated in the northeast of Scotland. It is a private residence of the British sovereign. It was not only loved by Queen Victoria and Prince Albert, but also a favourite summer residence for the Queen and her family. Parts of the Castle, such as the Estate grounds, gardens and the Castle Ballroom are open to visitors from April to July each year.

The Royal Household

The Royal Household provides the Queen with support and advice, making sure that she can better



Buckingham Palace



Windsor Castle

serve the United Kingdom. There are about 1,200 employees in the Royal Household, who have taken a wide range of professions, for instance, catering and hospitality, gardening, finance, media relations, accountancy, marketing, human resources, housekeeping, IT, property surveying and maintenance, equine management, visitor management, furniture restoration, curatorship and strategic planning and research.

The Royal Household consists of five Departments. These Departments are: the Private Secretary's Office, the Master of the Household's Department, the Privy Purse and Treasurer's Office, the Lord Chamberlain's Office, and the Royal Collection Department. Most of the Departments are based at Buckingham Palace, although some staff also work at St. James's Palace, Windsor Castle, the Palace of Holyroodhouse and the Royal Mews.

In order to be transparent, the Royal Household publishes a yearly summary of Head of State expenditure and a detailed annual report on Royal public finances. The Royal Household has committed itself to making sure that taxpayer's money is spent more wisely and efficiently.

Glossary

bound 受约束的,有义务的
reserve 保留,含蓄
issue 宣布,发布
resentful 愤怒的
abuse 滥用
baron 男爵
revolt 反叛,反抗
consent 准许,同意
proclaim 宣告,声明
immense 极大的,巨大的
jurist 法学家
statute 成文法,法令
Protestant 新教徒
enact 制定(法律),通过(法案)
succession 继承权
suspend 暂停,延缓
levy 征收
provision 规定,条款
advocate 拥护,主张
bail 保释金
cornerstone 奠基石
abdicate 退位,逊位
perspicacious 有洞察力的
accede 即位
endeavor 尝试,试图
debutante 初进社交界的上流社会年轻女子
luncheon 午餐,午宴
jubilee 周年纪念
conviction 信念
onlooker 旁观者

marital 婚姻的
prorogue 休会
impound 依法没收，扣押
revoke 撤回
caretaker 看门人
pragmatism 实用主义
consort （君王的）配偶
heir 继承人
celebrity 名人，名流
landmine 地雷
funeral 葬礼
inclination 倾向，趋势
sponsor 赞助
commemoration 纪念，纪念仪式
charity 慈善团体
vulnerable 易受伤的，脆弱的
state visit 国事访问
expenditure 花费，支出
VAT value added tax 增值税
transparent 透明的
upkeep 保养，维修
consensus 一致，共识
commissioner 专员，长官
revenue 收入，税收
generate 产生
maintenance 维护，维持
capital gains tax 资本增值税，资本收益税
inheritance tax 遗产税
regnant 统治的
dowager 继承亡夫爵位的遗孀
feminize 使女性化，使具有女性特点
immediate 最接近的
investiture 授权，授职
accountancy 会计工作
curatorship 管理者的职务

Cultural Notes

1. **King Alfred the Great** Alfred was king of Wessex from 871 to 899. He was the first king of the West Saxons to give himself the title "King of the Anglo-Saxons". He is well known for his protection of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of southern England from outside invasions. Thus he became the only English king to be given the title "the Great".
2. **Heir presumptive** an heir presumptive is a person who is temporarily and conditional supposed to inherit a throne, peerage, or other hereditary honor. But the birth of an heir apparent or a new heir presumptive with a better claim to the throne can change the situation.
3. **Auxiliary Territorial Service** it refers to the women's branch of the British army during the Second World War. It has been in existence from 9 September 1938 to 1 February 1949.
4. **Richard Crossman** Richard Crossman (15 December 1907—5 April 1974) was a British Labour politician and one of the Labour Party's leading Zionists and anti-communists. He was a Cabinet Minister under Harold Wilson. Crossman was the editor of the New Statesman and is famous for his three-volume Diaries of a Cabinet Minister.
5. **Trooping the Color** this term is originally from an old military tradition. Since 1748 Trooping the Colour has been in use to mark the official birthday of the British sovereign. It is held on Horse Guards Parade in St James's Park in London on the second Saturday in June each year.
6. **Walter Bagehot** Walter Bagehot (1826—1877) was an English economist, political analyst, journalist as well as social scientist. As the editor of the Economist since 1860, he helped to make it one of the leading financial and political journals in the world. His works are Lombard Street (1873), English

Constitution (1864), Literary Studies (1879), Economic Studies (1880), Physics and Politics (1875).

7. **William Ewart Gladstone** William Ewart Gladstone (29 December 1809 - 19 May 1898) was a British Liberal Party statesman and served four times prime minister of the United Kingdom (1868-74, 1880-85, 1886, 1892-94). He was also Chancellor of the Exchequer. Gladstone was regarded as one of the influential figures of the Victorian era.
8. **Scottish Militia Bill** this bill was passed by the House of Commons and House of Lords of the Parliament of Great Britain in spring 1708, but later vetoed by Queen Anne on the advice of her ministers on 11 March 1708. The reason was that the proposed militia would be disloyal if created.
9. **Case of Proclamations (1610)** The Case of Proclamations (1610) was a decision made by High Court of England and Wales during the reign of King James I (1603—1625). It imposed some limitations on the Royal Prerogative at that time.
10. **Court Circular** The Court Circular is a formal record of the engagements undertaken by the Queen and the royal family. It is issued by Buckingham Palace and is published in The Times, The Daily Telegraph and The Scotsman every day. Things on record include investitures, visits by VIPs, Heads of State and diplomats, the events, lunches, state dinners and receptions.
11. **Letters Patent** Letters patent are a kind of legal instrument, which take the form of an open letter. Letters patent are issued by a monarch or government to grant an office, right, monopoly, title, or status to a person or a corporation.
12. **Sandringham House** Sandringham House is situated on the royal Sandringham Estate, Norfolk, England. The house is privately possessed by the British royal family and it has been owned by four generations of monarchs.
13. **Tower of London** Tower of London is situated on the north bank of the River Thames, London, England. The tower used to be a fortress, a royal palace and a prison especially for high status and royal prisoners. It has also been used as a place of execution and torture, an armoury, a treasury, a zoo, the Royal Mint, a public records office, an observatory, and the home of the Crown Jewels of the United Kingdom. Today the Tower of London is managed by an independent charity, Historic Royal Palaces.
14. **Hampton Court Palace** Hampton Court Palace, a royal palace, is located in south west London. It has not been used by the British royal family since the 18th century. Today, the palace is open to the public and is a major tourist destination. It is managed by an independent charity, Historic Royal Palaces.
15. **Banqueting House** it was built between 1619 and 1622. The Banqueting House is one of the grandest and best rooms in the country. It plays a very important role in the history of English architecture. Today, the Banqueting House is a national monument and is open to the public. It has been in preservation as a Grade I listed building. It is managed by an independent charity, Historic Royal Palaces.
16. **Kensington Palace** Kensington Palace is a royal residence located in Kensington Gardens in London, England. It has been used as a residence by the British royal family since the 17th century. Today it is the official residence of the Duke and Duchess of Gloucester; the Duke and Duchess of Kent; and Prince and Princess Michael of Kent. Kensington Palace is also used by Prince Harry and

his cousin Zara Phillips unofficially. Today, part of the Palace is open to the public and the palace is managed by the independent charity Historic Royal Palaces.

17. **Kew Palace** Kew Palace is a British Royal Palace and it lies in Kew Gardens, Kew. There have been at least four palaces at Kew, and three of them have been named Kew Palace.
18. **St. James's Palace** Saint James's Palace is situated in Pall Mall, Westminster, London, England. It was built by Henry VIII and it is one of London's oldest palaces. Although it has not been in use for a long time, it has still remained the official residence of the British monarch. Today, it is only used for certain ceremonies.
19. **Palace of Holyroodhouse** The Palace of Holyroodhouse is commonly known as Holyrood Palace. It is the official residence of the monarch in Scotland. The Palace is in Edinburgh, Scotland. It has been used as the primary residence of the kings and queens of Scots since the 15th century. Queen Elizabeth II normally stays in the Palace for one week each summer to hold garden parties and official ceremonies.
20. **Royal Mews** The Royal Mews refer to the mews which used to be stables and in recent times also the garages of the British royal family in London. They have been in Buckingham Palace since the 1820s.

Questions for Discussion

1. What is a constitutional monarchy? When did it begin?
2. What is the pivotal role of constitutional monarchy in England?
3. What are some of the characteristics of the British constitutional monarchy?
4. What is the role of the monarchy in the British government?
5. How far back can the British royal family trace their roots? Is Queen Elizabeth II really directly descended from Alfred the Great?
6. Would Princess Diana have become queen?
7. Why are William and Harry referred to as Wales when their name is Windsor?
8. Why are Roman Catholics excluded from the line of succession to the British throne?
9. Could the Queen choose to pass the throne directly to Prince William?
10. Why is the Queen's husband Prince Philip not King Philip?
11. Does the Queen pay taxes?

Supplementary Reading

After 10 Years, Fascination With Diana Hardly Fades

LONDON, Aug. 29 — Ten years have passed since Diana, Princess of Wales, died and Britain erupted in a febrile convulsion of grief and anger, but in some ways you would hardly know it.

The tabloids are still spinning breathless tales of conspiracy, cover-up and royal squabbling.

"Document That Proves Diana Was Pregnant," said a recent headline in The Daily Express, nicknamed The Diana Express because of its enthusiasm for even the most tenuous news about the princess.

"Charles 'Hijacks' Diana Memorial," The Mail reported Sunday, in an article about fights over the guest list at the anniversary service, which is set for Friday at noon. (Elton John and Prime Minister Gordon Brown: in. Paul Burrell, Diana's butler, who is now peddling products like tea sets and "Royal Butler" wine: out.)

The royal family is still fretting and bickering, still seemingly incapable of getting it right. After being attacked for deciding to attend Diana's service, Prince Charles's second wife, Camilla, Duchess of Cornwall, abruptly announced last weekend that she would stay away after all so as not to "divert attention from the purpose of the occasion".

("Who could blame Camilla for being worried sick at the prospect of being captured by TV cameras as she knelt in the Guards' Chapel to pay tribute to the young woman, untimely ripped from us, who long ago nicknamed her The Rottweiler? " Allison Pearson wrote in The Daily Mail.)

And people are still arguing, as they did in that odd, volatile time a decade ago, over Diana's significance, in life and in death. Was she a na? ve innocent or a sophisticated schemer? Was Diana an extraordinary woman whose "lifetime of service touched the lives of millions", as Mr. Brown wrote over the weekend, or a "devious moron" desperate for attention, as the feminist author Germaine Greer recently described her?

Also, did her talent for drawing people into the dysfunctional minutiae of her life, and the un-British paroxysms of anguish that followed her death, change the psyche of a nation known for making repression a virtue?

And, it has been 10 years. Why do we even care?

Patrick Jephson, Diana's private secretary from 1990 to 1996, said that she still had the ability to capture and to polarize a crowd.

"Either you are a Diana fan or a Diana skeptic," he said in an interview. "People tend to see her in these rather monochrome shades, whereas in fact, of course, she was a complex figure. People tend to



Diana, Princess of Wales, in a 1970 family photo, left, on a royal visit to Hong Kong in 1989, and campaigning for land mine removal in Africa in 1997. Questions persist as to whether she was an innocent, a sophisticated schemer or a humanitarian.

overlook that she was a serious person in a serious role doing a serious job in her life."

Diana's death, in a car accident in a Parisian tunnel, is hardly the raw wound it was 10 years ago. People are not walking through London openly sobbing, depositing vast seas of flowers at the royal palaces or calling for Queen Elizabeth to show her humanity by, say, collapsing with grief in public. Life is going on much the way it did before.

But as the country prepares to commemorate the anniversary of the princess's death, on Aug. 31, the woman the columnist Suzannne Moore calls "the ghost at every royal occasion" is hard to miss.

The royal memorial service is not open to the public, but shoppers at Harrods department store have been invited to remain silent for two minutes on Friday with Mohamed Al-Fayed, the owner, whose son, Emad Mohamed, known as Dodi, died with Diana. Mr. Fayed has not been invited to the official service, probably because he has repeatedly declared the crash to be an establishment plot orchestrated by the British security services, led by Prince Philip, the queen's husband.

Newspapers and magazines, well aware that articles about Diana always bolster sales, no matter what they say, are awash in commemorative sections and analyses of What it All Means. On television, a stream of films starring Diana look-alikes has revisited various well-trod aspects of Diana's life. An audio-visual exhibit at Kensington Palace, where she lived, is devoted to "Diana: A Princess Remembered."

Crowds are still taking in the sunshine (when there is any) and having picnics beside the Diana, Princess of Wales, Memorial Fountain in Hyde Park. There, Diana is a topic, much like the weather, about which everyone is sure to have an opinion.

Jane Bowyer, 51, said there the other day that she was still angry that Camilla, or "the Duchess of Whatever She Calls Herself," had moved from pilloried royal mistress to acceptable public figure.

On the other hand, Peter Hall, 45, said, "Camilla glams up really well."

But what about Diana? Did she transform the British psyche?

Sarah Adlington, 37, said Diana might well have changed the monarchy for the better, because "she brought them down to earth."

Her husband, Peter, 35, said that while many nonroyal Britons were undoubtedly more openly emotional than they used to be, the new candor did not extend to him. "I'm a Yorkshireman," he said. "They don't come any less emotional than that."

Sitting near the fountain with her husband and another couple, Jan Gaskell, who said she was in her late 50s, complained that "a lot of people are making a lot of money out of Diana."

She added, "My personal opinion is that she should be left in peace."

Royal P.R.: People's Princess Obliterates the Stiff Upper Lip

"In the end her celebrity killed her," Sarah Bradford writes in "Diana," the latest echoey addition to the unstoppable line of biographies of the Princess of Wales. That conclusion is inane, but it has a certain lived-by-the-sword, died-by-the-sword neatness. No one understood or manipulated her own celebrity better than Diana, whose cultural legacy - transforming royals into pop stars - is the template for two new films, "The Queen" and "Marie Antoinette", and a boomlet of lesser works about royals.

Diana is a very visible ghost throughout the director Stephen Frears's "Queen", appearing not in the guise of an actress but in actual snippets from the news. Her strong presence makes sense because this incisive film, set during the week after the princess's death, is precisely about what Diana wrought, a new era of royals as accessible, media-ready personalities.

And although Diana is nowhere in "Marie Antoinette", the writer and director Sofia Coppola smartly puts her lessons to use, viewing this 18th-century queen through the lens of pop culture. Kirsten Dunst plays Marie Antoinette as a contemporary woman plopped down in Versailles, her life set to bouncy 1980's music despite her towering wigs. Diana's blend of royalty and rock-star glitz has become so absorbed by the culture that it infuses the film, whether Ms. Coppola had her in mind or not.

The current fascination with royalty may be as artistic as these films, as vapid as the People magazine special issue "The Royals: Their Lives, Loves and Secrets," with Princes William and Harry on the cover, or as substantial as the historian Caroline Weber's surprisingly lively book "Queen of Fashion," about the political significance of Marie Antoinette's clothes. But they all exist at the crossroads of royalty and celebrity spin that Diana redefined for our age.



Helen Mirren and James Cromwell after Diana's death in "The Queen".

Like any good celebrity today, Diana perfected the illusion of accessibility, exuding the common touch although she was anything but. The tension between her new, and Queen Elizabeth II's old, brand of royal image-making is at the heart of the Frears movie, as the out-of-touch queen (Helen Mirren) grapples with the public and media clamor for some hint of feeling from the palace in response to the princess's death. Afterward, Elizabeth bitterly realizes: "I've never been hated like that before. Nowadays people want glamour and tears, the grand performance."

What Tony Blair (Michael Sheen) tries to persuade her to embrace, what Blair and Diana so viscerally understood, was the need for an emotional performance in a touchy-feely media age. Ms. Mirren makes Elizabeth immensely moving in her quaint belief that her subjects want stoic reserve and dignity from their monarch. But Diana was Oprah and Blair her Dr. Phil; no contest.

Diana had entered the royal family as an innocent at the center of a fairy tale, but as soon as she woke up, she spun her image for all it was worth. That mastery of the media is evident in "The Queen" in a clip from the famous television interview in which Diana coyly says, "I would like to be queen of people's hearts."

The film's Prince Charles (Alex Jennings) has more of a clue than his mother does, explaining to her, "The two Dianas, the public's and ours, bear no relation to each other." But like the rest of his family, he is flummoxed about how to respond.

When the Queen Mother (Sylvia Syms) is told that the guest list for Diana's funeral includes actors,

fashion designers "and other celebrities," she says, "Celebrities?" she is mystified at the very idea. There is no more emblematic scene of Diana's legacy in the film than the news clip showing Tom Hanks, Steven Spielberg and Tom Cruise walking into the funeral.

The line between royals and celebs vanishes when the monarchy is no more than a figurehead; today royalty is so thoroughly imbued with public relations and celebrity that even the historians in David Grubin's thoughtful documentary "Marie Antoinette" (recently on PBS and just released on DVD) see its subject as a victim of bad P.R. Simon Schama mentions her efforts at "damage containment." The French historian Antoine de Baecque, citing the vicious images in pamphlets that depicted her having sex with a variety of men and women, describes her in terms that apply to Ms. Mirren's Elizabeth too. "The queen doesn't understand she's in an image war," he says.

Ms. Coppola's film (at the New York Film Festival on Friday and Saturday and opening in theaters on Oct. 20) is slyer in approaching its heroine through a contemporary lens. Marie Antoinette lived like the 18th-century version of a pop star, and viewing her through that familiar imagery — drinking Champagne, dancing through the gardens, giggling at stuffy court rituals as if a day at Versailles were the MTV Video Music Awards — offers the audience a way into the period.

Following Antonia Fraser's engaging, sympathetic 2001 biography, "Marie Antoinette: The Journey," the film portrays the queen in her early years at court as a teenager in over her head. And the film's visual extravagance and candy-colored palette do more than showcase her youthful frivolity. The opening scene, of cakes everywhere, teases us with the idea that the movie will undercut, the chestnut that Marie Antoinette was a horror who said, "Let them eat cake." A shot of an empty Versailles echoes with her loneliness. She fills the void of her life, including a marriage that was essentially sexless for the first seven years, with high-spirited escapism.

In contemporary terms, the film's Marie Antoinette begins as Diana did, a teenage bride in an arranged marriage, a lamb to the royal slaughter. Unlike Diana, she never won her P.R. battle, at least until the 20th and 21st centuries revised her image for her.

If today's royals are simply part of celebrity culture, in turn some stars have taken on the aura of old-fashioned royalty. The adoption of whole African countries - Brangelina takes Namibia, Madonna gets Malawi — is pop culture's version of noblesse oblige. Celebrities travel the world with their loyal retainers, a rather feudal situation, even if the retainers are personal trainers, nutritionists and publicists. And any reporter who has been warned not to mention bad reviews during an interview can tell you that movie stars often live in their own little bubbles. Look how well that turned out for some royals.

Further Reading

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Chapter 6
The British Economy



导读
Introduction

英国的国内生产总值在全世界居第七位，落后于美国、中国、日本、德国、法国和意大利。私有企业是英国经济的主体，占据了生产总值的82%和总就业的79%。英国是最早开始工业化进程的资本主义国家。第一次工业革命首先发生在英国；1850年，英国在世界工业总产值中占39%，在世界贸易中占21%，均居垄断地位；第一次世界大战期间，英国的经济实力遭到严重打击，英国占有250年的海上霸权丧失了；第二次世界大战以后，英国的经济力量遭到严重的削弱，殖民地市场进一步缩小；20世纪60年代后期推行的高税、福利和国有化政策使英国经济处于极端困难境地；然而，英国由于工业发展历史较长，有比较完整的国民经济体系和工业体系，所以仍属世界上有较强经济实力的国家；1973年，英国加入欧洲经济共同体，改变了其依赖英联邦各国和发展中国家的统治，转而加强与欧洲国家的贸易关系；1979年，以撒切尔夫人为首的保守党政府开始治理“英国病”，其措施是：强调发挥市场经济作用，减少国家干预，紧缩开支，降低税收，整顿福利，调整工业，取消外汇管制，推行私有化和货币主义政策，结果使英国经济有了明显的恢复；近年来，该国服务业在国内生产总值的比重不断增大，已占76%，而工业比重却逐渐缩小，仅占23%。英国是世界第3大对外投资国，主要债权之一，英还是世界上最大的无形贸易进出口国之一。首都伦敦是世界最大的国际外汇市场和国际保险中心，世界上最大的黄金市场，同时也是世界上最大的金融和贸易中心之一。本章简要介绍英国的经济概况。

During the 16th and 17th centuries, Great Britain became one of the world's foremost trading nations. The kingdom built up uncountable colonies in India, Asia, the Caribbean, and North America. These colonies supplied raw materials to the industry of the United Kingdom, and then those resources were turned into manufactured goods, which were then exported to markets in the colonies and around the world. As a result, the United Kingdom became one of the very first nations in the world to go through an industrial revolution. By the 1800s, the British industrial level was the highest in the world.

Economic expansion in UK was also enhanced by the kingdom's political power and the empire, which included one-quarter of the world's territory and almost one-third of its population. By 1900, rival

economic powers such as Germany and the United States began to challenge the empire. The influences of World War I and World War II and the subsequent period of de-colonization in the 1950s and 1960s led to a falling of British economic power. After decades of economic decline, the British economy began to regain its glory in the 1980s.

The British economy is one of the largest and most diversified in the world. It currently ranks 21st on the HDI (Human Development Index). In 2008, its GDP ranked seventh in the world. Its GDP per capita was US$43,785, which ranked twentieth in the world. With foreign investments included, the British economy is the fourth-largest in the world and the second-largest in Europe. London, its capital, ranks along with New York as one of the world's major financial centers. And the kingdom is one of the world's leading trading nations. In addition to its economic advantages, the country has a great variety of natural resources including oil, natural gas, coal, tin, limestone, iron ore, salt, clay, chalk, gypsum, lead, and silica.

Therefore, British economy attracted considerable foreign investments and prompted many foreign companies to relocate to the kingdom. It has also led a number of large multinational companies to merge with British companies.

The kingdom is one of the few nations in the world that has the capability to compete with the United States in some of the leading high-tech areas, including e-commerce (business and services bought and sold through the Internet) and telecommunications. It is also home to some of the world's largest banking and financial service firms. Agriculture in the United Kingdom remains a strong, but a small part of the economy. British farmers are among the most productive in Europe, but recent problems with hoof and mouth disease and mad-cow disease have caused widespread declines in its agricultural production.

While the industry is declining in relation to other areas, it is a significant component of the kingdom's economy. For instance, British Steel is the largest steel manufacturer in Europe and the third-largest producer in the world. Other major industries include aerospace, chemicals, clothing, communications equipment, the production of machine tools and electric power tools, railroad equipment, shipbuilding, textiles, and paper products. The most productive industry in the UK is the energy sector, which contributes 10 percent of the kingdom's GDP. The British produce coal, natural gas, and oil for both domestic use and export.

However, in 2007, the UK had the world's third largest current account deficit according to the IMF. This was mainly the result of a large deficit in the trade. During May 2008, the IMF advised the UK government to broaden the scale of fiscal policy to promote external balance.

I. Industry

Manufacturing

According to the Office for National Statistics, manufacturing industry accounted for 16% of national output in the UK and for 13% of employment in 2003. The steady decline in the importance of this sector to the British economy began since the 1960s, although the sector is still important for overseas trade, accounting for 83% of exports in 2003. The regions with the highest proportion of employees in manufacturing were the East Midlands and West Midlands (at 19% and 18% respectively). London had

Economy of the United Kingdom	
Currency	Pound sterling (GBP)
Fiscal year	6th April-5th April
Trade organizations	EU, BCN, OECD and WTO
Statistics	
GDP	$2.674 trillion (2008 est. nom.)[1]
GDP growth	-0.2% (Q3 2009) and-5.1% (Oct 2008 to Sep 2009)[2]
GDP per capita	$43,785 (2008 est. nom.) (20th)
GDP by sector	Agriculture (1%), industry (23%), services (76%) (2008 est.)
Inflation (CPI)	5.7%(September 2009)
Population below poverty line	14% with household income below 60% of UK median income (2006 est.)
Labour force	31 million (includes unemployed) (2007 est.)
Labour force by occupation	Services (81%), industry (18%) and agriculture (1%) (excludes unemployed) (2007) [citation needed]
Unemployment	7.5% (Q3 2009)[3]
Main industries	Machine tools, industrial equipment, scientific equipment, shipbuilding, aircraft, motor vehicles and parts, electronic machinery, computers, processed metals, chemical products, coal mining, oil production, paper, food processing, textiles, clothing and other consumer goods.
External	
Exports	$442.2 billion (2007 est.)
Main export partners	USA 15%, Germany 11%, France 10%, Ireland 7%, Netherlands 6%, Belgium 6%, Spain 5%, Italy 4% (2007)
Imports	$621.4 billion (2007 est.)
Main import partners	Germany 14.2%, US 8.6%, China 7.3%, Netherlands 7.3%, France 6.9%, Belgium 4.7%, Norway 4.7%, Italy 4.2% (2007)
Public finances	
Public debt	51.8% of GDP (2008 est.)
Revenues	$1.056 trillion
Expenses	$1.214 trillion (2008 est.)
Economic aid	$8 billion (donor)
All values, unless otherwise stated, are in US dollars	

the lowest at 6%.

Although data from the OECD shows that manufacturing output in terms of both production and value has steadily increased since 1945, the manufacturing sector's share of both employment and the UK's GDP has steadily fallen since the 1960s. This is a trend common in many mature Western economies. Heavy industry, employing many thousands of people and producing large volumes of low-value goods (such as steelmaking) has either become highly efficient (producing the same amount of output from fewer manufacturing sites employing fewer people — for example, productivity in the UK's steel industry increased by a factor of 8 between 1978 and 2006) or has been replaced by smaller industrial units producing high-value goods (such as the aerospace and electronics industries).

Engineering and allied industries comprise the single largest sector, contributing 30.8% of total Gross

Value Added in manufacturing in 2003. Within this sector, transport equipment was the largest contributor, with 8 global car manufacturers being present in the UK-BMW (MINI, Rolls-Royce), Tata (Jaguar-Land Rover), General Motors (Vauxhall Motors), Honda, Nissan, Toyota and Volkswagen (Bentley) with a number of smaller, specialist manufacturers (including Lotus and Morgan) and commercial vehicle manufacturers (including Leyland Trucks, LDV, Alexander Dennis, JCB, the main global manufacturing plant for the Ford Transit, Manganese Bronze and Case-New Holland) also being present. The British motor industry also comprises numerous components for the sector, such as Ford's diesel engine plant in Dagenham, which produces half of Ford's diesel engines globally.

A range of companies like Brush Traction and Hunslet manufacture railway locomotives and other related components. Associated with this sector are the aerospace and defence equipment industries. The UK manufactures a broad range of equipment, with the sector being dominated by BAE Systems, which manufactures civil and defence aerospace, land and marine equipment; VT Group, one of the world's largest builders of warships; and GKN and Rolls Royce, who manufacture aerospace engines and power generation systems. Commercial shipbuilders include Harland and Wolff, Cammell Laird, Abels, Barclay Curle and Appledore. Companies such as Fairline Boats and Sunseeker are major builders of private motor yachts.

Another important component of Engineering and allied industries is electronics, audio and optical equipment, with the UK having a broad base of domestic firms, alongside a number of foreign firms manufacturing a wide range of TV, radio and communications products, scientific and optical instruments, electrical machinery and office machinery and computers.

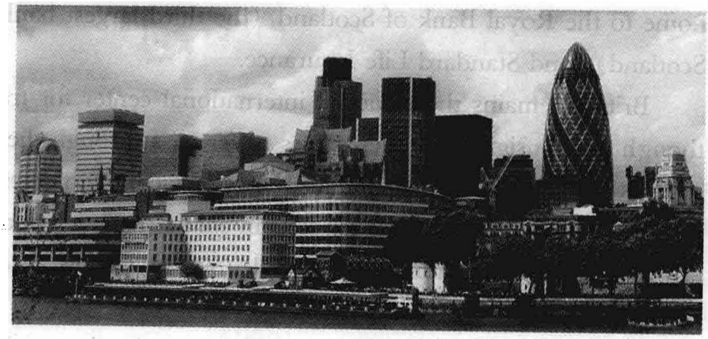
Chemicals and chemical-based products are another important contributor to the UK's manufacturing base. Within this sector, the pharmaceutical industry is particularly successful, with the world's second and third largest pharmaceutical firms (GlaxoSmithKline and AstraZeneca respectively) being based in the UK and having major research and development and manufacturing facilities there.

Other important sectors of the manufacturing industry include food, drink, tobacco, paper, printing, publishing and textiles. The UK is also home to three of the world's biggest brewing companies: Diageo, SABMiller and Scottish and Newcastle, other major manufacturing companies such as Unilever, Cadbury, Tate & Lyle, British American Tobacco, Imperial Tobacco, EMAP, HarperCollins, Reed Elsevier, Ben Sherman, Burberry, French Connection, Reebok, Pentland Group and Umbro being amongst the largest present.

Manufacturing is an important sector of the modern British economy and there is a considerable amount of published research on the subject of the factors affecting its growth and performance. Of late, such things as increases in taxation and regulation have tended to diminish the favourableness of the political-legal environment for UK industry. Within manufacturing, British firms and industries have often lagged behind their overseas competitors in terms of productivity and various other key performance measures. However, Britain — the birthplace of the Industrial Revolution — continues to be one of the most attractive countries in the world for direct foreign industrial investment.

Finance

London is the world's largest financial centre, with financial services based around two districts: "The City" (the City of London) and the Docklands (particularly around Canary Wharf). The City



houses the London Stock Exchange (shares and bonds), London Metal Exchange (base metal and plastic futures), Lloyds of London (insurance), and the Bank of England. The Docklands began development in the 1980s and is now home to the Financial Services Authority, as well as several important financial institutions (such as Barclays Bank, Citigroup and HSBC). There are now over 500 banks with offices in the City and Docklands, with the majority of business in London being conducted on an international basis, with established leads in areas such as Eurobonds, foreign exchange markets, energy futures and global insurance. The Alternative Investments Market has acted a growth market over the past decade, allowing London to also expand as an international equity centre for smaller firms.

The London Stock Exchange, founded in 1801, is one of the largest stock exchanges in the world, with many overseas listings as well as British companies. The origin of the London Stock Exchange goes back to the coffee houses of the seventeenth century where those who wished to invest or raise money bought and sold shares in joint stock companies. Brokers later opened their own subscription Economy of the country has been directed through the City which is the nerve center of the national finance. The greater part of the country's income comes from invisible exports — operations originating from the City and flowing through its channels.

A large proportion of Britain's wealth has been invested by the City overseas. A number of banking institutions have their head offices in Britain but operate mainly abroad in particular regions such as Latin America or East Asia through extensive branch networks. The major bank in this sector is Standard Chartered. This shows how the City of London expands its activities beyond the country's borders; the same goes for the influence of the London Stock Exchange and Commodities Exchanges.

London's status as a global financial centre is, in part, an historical accident driven by American regulations in the 1960s that created an offshore lending business (the Euromarket) in Britain. Over the years London built on that opportunity by welcoming foreign market-makers (the Big Bang reform of 1986) and by offering a regulatory structure that seemed more appealing than those on offer in Paris or Frankfurt. Tax laws persuaded some of the global elite to spend at least part of the year in Britain. Wall Street banks moved a good chunk of their operations to the City and Canary Wharf; London became a hub in areas such as fund management and derivatives trading. These things can be done anywhere; Britain merely offered the best environment.

The United Kingdom had £21 billion of financial exports in 2005, contributing significantly towards the balance of payments. The UK has had an expanding export business in financial service, at least partly due to the presence of a regulatory structure now accepted by the Government as inadequate, as well as a highly skilled workforce.

Several other major UK cities have large financial sectors and related services, most notably Leeds, which is now the UK's largest centre for business and financial services outside London, and the largest legal centre outside London, as well as Edinburgh, the eleventh largest banking centre in Europe and

home to the Royal Bank of Scotland (the third largest bank in Europe), HBOS (owners of the Bank of Scotland), and Standard Life Insurance.

Britain remains the principal international center for transactions in a large number of commodities, though the consignments themselves never pass through the ports of Britain. The need for close links with sources of finance, shipping and insurance services often determines the locations of these markets in the City of London. There are futures markets in cocoa, coffee, grains, rubber, sugar, pig meat, potatoes there.

Gas, oil for heating and petroleum are traded through the International Petroleum Exchange, Europe's only energy futures exchange.

Copper, lead, zinc, nickel, aluminum, aluminum alloys and tin are treaded through the London Metal Exchange (LME), the world's largest non-ferrous base metals exchange.

The Baltic Exchange is the world's leading international shipping exchange. It makes a significant contribution to Britain's balance of payments. Baltic dealers handle more than a half the world's bulk cargo, transportation of oil, ore, coal and grain. All Britain's agricultural futures markets are operated from the Baltic Exchange and physical trading and commodities are also carried out there.

Transportations

With an integrated system of airports, seaports, rail and road, businesses located in the UK can select the optimal method of moving people and freight between major cities and locations, both within the UK and internationally.

The UK has the largest air transport system in Europe, accounting for 217 million passengers (2009) and the top four busiest international air routes. The leading airports in the UK are: London Heathrow, London Gatwick, and Manchester Airport.

London Heathrow: the largest and busiest international airport in Europe and the third largest globally, handling over 65 million passengers a year. Ninety-two airlines fly to 181 destinations worldwide, operating an average of 1,250 flights a day.

London Gatwick: the busiest single-runway airport in the world, with over 32 million passengers handled each year. Ninety airlines fly to 213 different destinations, operating an average of over 700 flights a day.

Manchester Airport: the third largest airport in the UK, handling 22 million passengers each year. Over 100 airlines fly to 220 different destinations, operating an average of 600 flights a day.

The UK has an advanced and comprehensive road transport system, with a total of 394,000 kilometers of roads (2009). There are almost 3,600 kilometers of motorways, all of which are toll-free except for the M6 Toll adjacent to the M6 in Birmingham.

The UK has a privatized rail network linking all locations across the country and, through the Eurostar connection and the Channel Tunnel, key locations in Europe.

The UK ports and harbours industry is one of the largest in Europe, with over 100 active ports operating across the UK. Major container ports are at Felixstowe, Southampton, Thamesport, Tilbury and Liverpool; major estuary ports include London, Tees, Hartlepool and Grimsby/Immingham. UK ports handle over 580 million tons of freight each year, the largest volume in the European Union.

Energy

During 2007, the total energy consumed in the UK was the equivalent to 164.6 million tons of oil

(an increase of 11.74% compared to the equivalent of 147.3 million tons of oil used in 1990). This represented 65.5% of the total energy used; the other 34.5% was lost in converting or transmitting the energy, or was used by the energy industries themselves before it reached the consumers.

Final energy consumption was used by consumers in the following proportions:

Transport-38.83% (33.00% in 1990)

Domestic-28.19% (27.70% in 1990)

Industry-20.21% (26.27% in 1990)

Services and agriculture-12.77% (13.03% in 1990)

With large coal reserves, and the extraction of North Sea oil and gas that started in the 1970s, until the 2000s the UK was one of the few countries that were largely self sufficient in energy, and indeed the UK was a net-exporter of oil and gas in recent decades.

Due to the decline in North Sea production, and the costs of mining and using coal cleanly, unless action is taken to reduce demand, it is expected that the UK will become a major importer of oil and gas by 2015. After becoming a net exporter of gas in 1997, the UK became a net importer again in 2004.

In the early years of the 2000s, concerns grew over the prospect of an "energy gap" in UK generating capacity. This is forecast to arise because it is expected that a number of coal fired power stations will close due to being unable to meet the clean air requirements of the European Large Combustion Plant Directive. In addition, the UK's remaining Magnox nuclear stations will have closed by 2015.

A report from the industry in 2005 forecast that, without action to fill the gap, there would be a 20% shortfall in electricity generation capacity by 2015. The first move to plug the UK's energy gap was the June 2006 announcement by Centrica that they would proceed to construct the conventionally gas-fired Langage Power Station.

In 2007, proposals for the construction of two new coal-fired power stations were announced, in Tilbury, Essex and in Kingsnorth, Kent. If built, they will be the first coal-fired stations to be built in the UK in 20 years.

Beyond these new plants, there are a number of options that might be used to provide the new generating capacity, while minimising carbon emissions and producing less residues and contamination.

A March 2006 report by the British Wind Energy Association forecast that onshore wind farms should be able to supply nearly 5% of the national electricity requirements by 2010 (6 GW). The development of offshore wind farms in the UK is more recent, with only 4 operational at the end of 2005 generating only 213.80 MW, though others are in the pipeline. The installed capacity of all wind farms in the UK passed the 2 GW milestone in February 2007, but there remains considerable scope for growth.

Due to the island location of the UK, the country has great potential for generating electricity from wave power and tidal power. To date, wave and tidal power have received very little money for development and consequently have not yet been exploited on a significant commercial basis due to doubts over their economic viability in the UK. Funding for the UK's first wave farm was announced by the Scottish Executive in February 2007. It will be the world's largest, with a capacity of 3 MW generated by four Pelamis machines and a cost of over 4 million pounds.

Gas from sewage and landfill (biogas) has already been exploited in some areas. In 2004 it provided 129.3 GW·h (up 690% from 1990 levels), and was the UK's leading renewable energy source,

representing 39.4% of all renewable energy produced (including hydro).

Other biofuels can provide a close-to-carbon-neutral energy source, if locally grown. In South America and Asia, the production of biofuels for export has in some cases resulted in significant ecological damage, including the clearing of rainforest. In 2004 biofuels provided 105.9 GW·h, 38% of it wood. This represented an increase of 500% from 1990.

In some countries the installation of solar electricity has already received considerable Government support. At the end of 2006 the UK's installed capacity of 13 MWp (Megawatts peak) represented just 0.3% of the European total of 3.4 GWp. By way of comparison, due to their plans to phase out nuclear energy there is a growing (though heavily subsidized) capacity in Germany, where 3.0 GWp had been installed by the end of 2006 (90% of all European capacity).

Investigations into the exploitation of geothermal power in the United Kingdom, prompted by the 1973 oil crisis, were abandoned as fuel prices fell. Only one scheme is operational, in Southampton. In 2004 it was announced that a further scheme would be built to heat the UK's first geothermal energy model village near Eastgate, County Durham.

Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry, and Fishing

Agriculture of UK is intensive, highly mechanized, and efficient by European standards, producing about 60% of food needs with less than 2% of the labour force (477,000 out of a total workforce of 31,598,000, 3rd quarter of 2007). It contributes around 2% of GDP. Around two-thirds of the production is devoted to livestock, one-third to arable crops. The main crops that are grown are wheat, barley, oats, oilseed rape, maize for animal feeds, potatoes and sugar beet. New crops are also emerging, such as linseed for oil and hemp for fibre production. The main livestock which are raised are cattle, chickens (the UK is the second largest poultry producer in Europe after France) and sheep. Agriculture is subsidized by the European Union's Common Agricultural Policy.

The UK retains a significant, although vastly reduced, fishing industry. Its fleets, based in towns such as Kingston upon Hull, Grimsby, Fleetwood, Great Yarmouth, Peterhead, Fraserburgh, and Lowestoft, bring home fish ranging from sole to herring.

Agriculture hunting, forestry and fishing added gross value of £10,323 million (at 2006 prices) to the UK economy in 2004.

Tourism

Tourism is one of the largest industries in the UK. According to a recent Deloitte study "The Economic Contribution of the Visitor Economy" tourism was worth £114.4bn to the UK economy in 2007 once the direct and indirect impacts are taken into account, equivalent to 8.2% of UK Gross Domestic Product. The Deloitte study found that tourism would account for a similar proportion of the overall UK economy in 2018 as it did in 2008 (roughly 8%), with the number of jobs that tourism supports increasing to 2.8 million.

Tourism expenditure is forecast to grow at an annual real growth rate of 2.1% per annum over the period 2009 to 2018 according to Deloitte. The visitor economy was estimated to be providing employment for 2.7 million people across the UK in 2007, equivalent to 8.4% of the workforce. Tourism is the UK's third highest export earner behind Chemicals and Financial Services.

The 31.9 million overseas visitors who came in 2008 spent £16.3 billion in the UK. These figures

represent a 2.7% decline in volume and 2.3% (nominal) increase in value compared with 2007 -this was the first decline in visitor numbers since 2001.

In 2008 the UK ranked seventh in the international tourism earnings league (compared with sixth in 2007) behind the USA, Spain, France, Italy, China and Germany.

Education

Universities generate almost £60bn a year for the UK economy. The total revenue earned by universities was £23.4bn, compared to just under £20bn for agriculture and under £15bn for the pharmaceutical industry. Higher education generates 2.3% of the UK's gross domestic product, making it one of the most effective sectors which makes an evidentially large contribution to the UK economy of £19.5bn.

Universities brought in £5.3bn from overseas students, international conferences and work conducted for overseas businesses. They provide the equivalent of 314,600 full-time jobs, or 1.2% of all full-time jobs in the UK. Those visiting universities from abroad and overseas students spent £2.3bn off-campus.

Real Estate and Lettings

The UK property market boomed for the seven years up to 2008 and in some areas property trebled in value over that period. The increase in property prices had a number of causes: sustained economic growth, low interest rates, the growth in property investment, and planning restrictions on the supply of new housing.

The UK property market initially peaked in July 2004 and was static or falling in the capital and some other areas until late 2005, leading many to worry about the possibility of a house price crash and to predict the end of a major British property bubble. However, the property market strengthened considerably in the first half of 2006, showing particular strength in the capital. This led many analysts to revise previously negative assessments of the market, with most subsequently predicting continued modest growth in prices in the mid-term. However, around September 2007, house prices began to fall consistently, arguably contributing to the negative UK economic growth of the 3rd Quarter 2008.

The predicted house price crash began in late 2008, and is all the more damaging because of record levels of household debt. Increasing numbers of bankruptcies and home repossessions have worried some economists. This has led many to propose that the correction in house prices will lead much of the country into a lengthy recession. In contrast however, first-time buyers who currently have assets not consisting of residential property, but with no way of attaining residential property (in some cases at all, and in others without undertaking unsustainable debt amounting to on average up to 5 times their annual salary), are now better placed to enter the property market.

This sector includes letting of dwellings and other related business support activities. The lettings industry added gross value of £83,037 million to the UK economy in 2004 while other real estate and business support activities added gross value of £175,333 million.

II. Currency

Since 1971, the monetary system of Great Britain is based on the decimal system. The basic unit of



British currency (currency of the United Kingdom and the Crown Dependencies) is the pound, which is divided into one hundred pence.

The official full name pound sterling (plural: pounds sterling) is used mainly in formal language and also to distinguish the currency used within the United Kingdom from others that have the same name. (GBP = Great British Pound)

As a unit of currency, the term pound originates from the value of one pound Tower weight of high purity silver known as sterling silver. Sterling silver is an alloy of silver containing 92.5% pure silver and 7.5% other metals, usually copper. The word sterling is believed to come from the Old Norman French esterlin (meaning little star) transformed in stiere in Old English (strong, firm, immovable).

The currency sign is the pound sign, originally? with two cross-bars, then later more commonly £ with a single cross-bar. The pound sign derives from the "£sd" pronounced, and sometimes written as "LSD". The abbreviation comes from librae, solidi, denarii (libra was the basic Roman unit of weight; the solidus and denarius were Roman coins). "£sd" was the popular name for the pre-decimal currencies pounds, shillings, pence of the Britain and other countries.

The coins in circulation: 1 penny, 2 pence, 5 pence, 10 pence, 20 pence, 50 pence, 1 pound, 2 pounds.

The notes (paper money) in circulation: £5, £10, £20, £50, and £100.

Scottish £1 notes are still in circulation in Scotland. The Channel Islands and the Isle of Man have some different coins and notes from the mainland but the monetary system is the same.

Central Bank

The Bank of England was established in 1684 by Act of Parliament and Royal Charter as a corporate body. Its entire capital stock was acquired by the Government under the Bank of England Act in 1946. It is the heart of the City of London and Britain's central bank. The Bank's main functions are to execute



monetary policy, to act as banker to the Government, to issue banknote and to provide central Banking facilities for the banking system that is the Bank is responsible for the financial system as a whole; it is "lender of last resort". The Bank's main objective is to support the Government in achieving low inflation. Unlike some other central banks the Bank cannot act independently of the Government.

Decisions on changes in the interest rates are taken by the Chancellor of Exchequer. The Bank's role is to advise the Chancellor and to carry out his decisions. The 1999 (November) interest rate was 5.5%. As banker to the Government the Bank of England is responsible for managing the National Debt. It has the sole right in England and Wales to issue banknote. The note issue is no longer backed by gold but the Government and other securities. The Scottish and Northern Ireland Banks have limited rights to issue notes and those must be fully covered by holdings of the Bank of England notes. Coins can be provided by the Royal Mint.

The Bank of England can influence money market conditions through discount houses. If on any day there is a shortage of cash in Banking system, the bank relieves the shortage either by buying bills from the discount houses or lending directly to them.

The Bank of England is responsible for supervision of the main wholesale markets in London for money, foreign exchange or gold bullion. On behalf of the Treasury the Bank manages the Exchange Equalization Account (EEA). Using the resources of EEA the Bank may intervene in the foreign exchange markets to check undue fluctuations in the exchange rate of sterling.

Ⅲ. Tax

Total UK government receipts are forecast to be £545.5 billion in 2008-09, or 37.3% of UK GDP. This is equivalent to roughly £10,900 for every adult in the UK, or £8,900 per person. Not all of this comes from taxes (or National Insurance contributions): net taxes and National Insurance contributions are forecast to raise £516.6 billion in 2008-09, with the remainder provided by surpluses of public sector industries, rent from state-owned properties and so on. A pie chart shows the composition of UK government revenue. Income tax, National Insurance contributions and VAT (value added tax) are easily the largest sources of revenue for the government, together accounting for almost two-thirds of total tax revenue. And the fourth-largest is corporation tax.

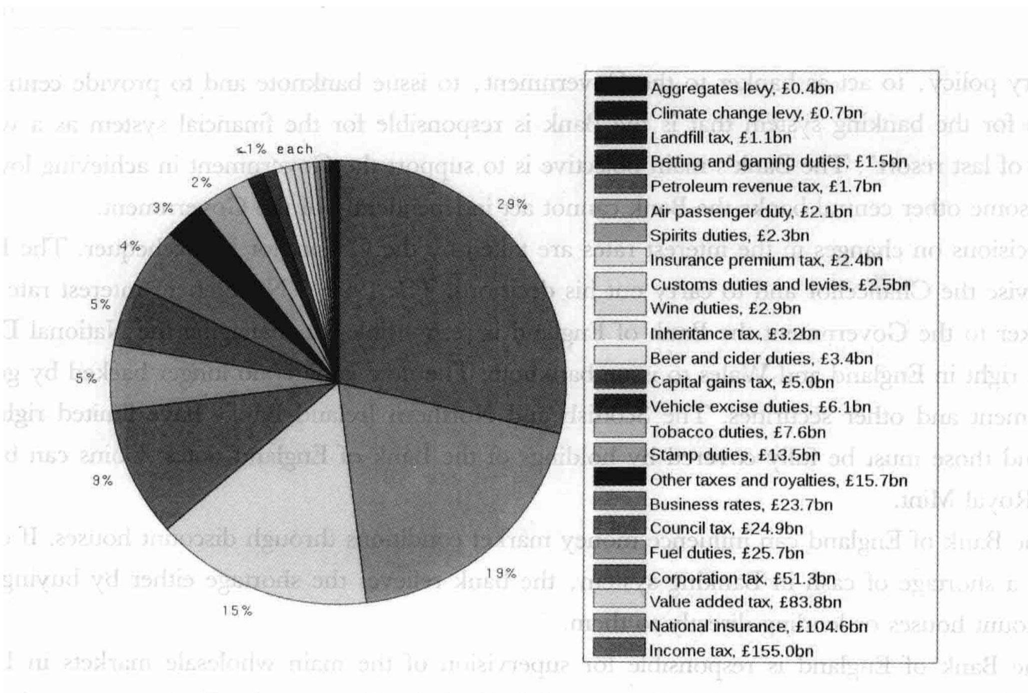
UK source income is generally subject to UK taxation no matter the citizenship nor the place of residence of the individual nor the place of registration of the company.

The Tax Year in the UK, which applies to income tax and other personal taxes, runs from 6 April in one year to 5 April the next (for income tax purposes). Hence the 2008-09 tax year ran from 6 April 2008 to 5 April 2009.

The tax year is sometimes also called the Fiscal Year. The Financial Year, used mainly for corporation tax purposes, runs from 1 April to 31 March. Financial Year 2008 runs from 1 April 2008 to 31 March 2009, as Financial Years are named according to the calendar year in which they start.

Ⅳ. Trade

As the world's 9th biggest exporter, United Kingdom shipped $464.9 billion worth of exports last



year according to. Principal UK exports include beverages, chemicals, food, fuels and tobacco. Based on 2008 statistics, United Kingdom's largest export clients were the United States (13.9%), Germany (11.5%), Netherlands (7.8%), France (7.5%), Ireland (7.5%), Belgium (5.2%) and Spain (4.1%).

United Kingdom imported $636 billion worth of foreign goods in 2008 led by foodstuffs, fuels, machinery and manufactured goods. Leading suppliers to the UK market were Germany (13.1%), US (8.7%), China (7.5%), Netherlands (7.4%), France (6.8%), Norway (6%), Belgium (4.7%) and Italy (4.1%). The world's 6th largest importing nation posted a $171.1 billion trade deficit for 2008. In total, United Kingdom's international trade amounted to $1.1 trillion or 41.2% of its overall GDP. This compares with 25% for the U.S. and 59.5% for Canada.

The Sino-British bilateral trade volume has registered a steady growth in recent years. UK is the second largest trade partner of China among EU countries. Statistics by the Chinese side show that in the year of 2002 the Sino-British trade volume reached US$11.34 billion, 10.6% higher than that of the same period of the previous year. By March 2003, the bilateral trade volume has totaled US$2.71 billion, 17.9% higher as compared with that of the same period of the previous year. Britain's actual investment in China continues to be the largest among the EU countries. By the end of 2002, the UK has invested in 3406 projects in China, with a contracted amount of US$ 19.6 billion and an implemented input of about US$10.7 billion. The UK has provided China with four government loans since 1986, totaling 855 million pound (approximately US$1.37 billion). The Sino-British Economic and Trade Joint Committee was established in 1996, and three sessions have been held thereafter. The China-UK Investment Partnership was established in 2001. In November 2001, the Second Session of the China-UK Financial Dialogue was held in Beijing.

Glossary

foremost 最初的，最重要的
colony 殖民地
rival 竞争者，对手
de-colonization 非殖民地化
diversified 多样化的
per capita 按人口平均计算
tin 锡
limestone 石灰石
gypsum 石膏
lead 石墨
silica 硅石
multinational 跨国的
decline 衰退
telecommunication 电讯
sterling 英国货币(英镑)
mechanize 机械化
barley 大麦
oats 燕麦
maize 玉米
beet 甜菜根
linseed 亚麻子
hemp 大麻，纤维
fiber 纤维
livestock 家畜
subsidise 补贴
vastly 广大地
sole 鳎
herring 青鱼，鲱
numerous 无数的
diesel 柴油机
sewage 下水道
landfill 垃圾
biogas 沼气
GW·h 十亿瓦时
biofuel 生物燃料
geothermal 地热的
annum 年，岁
Exchange 交易所
offshore 离岸的
consignment 交货，发货
nickel 镍
non-ferrous 有色的，非钢或铁的
Baltic 波罗的海的
banknote 钞票
bullion 金块
undue 不适当的
fiscal 财政的
trillion 万亿

Cultural Notes

1. **HDI (The Human Development Index)** a composite statistic used as an index to rank countries by level of "human development" and separate developed (high development), developing (middle development), and underdeveloped (low development) countries. The statistic is composed from statistics for Life Expectancy, Education, and GDP collected at the national level.
2. **GDP (Gross Domestic Product)** a basic measure of a country's overall economic output. It is the market value of all final goods and services made within the borders of a country in a year.
3. **E-commerce** business and services bought and sold through the Internet
4. **IMF (The International Monetary Fund)** an international organization that oversees the global financial system by following the macroeconomic policies of its member countries, in particular those with an impact on exchange rate and the balance of payments. It is an organization formed with a

stated objective of stabilizing international exchange rates and facilitating development. It also offers highly leveraged loans, mainly to poorer countries. Its headquarters are in Washington, D.C., United States.

5. **OECD** (**The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development**) a Paris-based international economic organisation of 30 countries. Most OECD members are high-income economies with a high Human Development Index (HDI) and are regarded as developed countries.
6. **Discount houses** a financial organization that purchases bankers' acceptances and trade acceptances, bills of exchange, and commercial paper. The purpose of the discount house is to purchase the above items, clearing the debt off the books of the institution holding them. It is a way for a lending institution to increase its cash flow.

Questions for Discussion

1. What are the major industries in UK's economy?
2. Why is the share of manufacturing industry in the UK's GDP declining?
3. What role does London play in the global financial system?
4. How does the Bank of England influence UK's money market?
5. What are the main sources of UK's total tax revenue?
6. What is the current Sino-British trade relationship?

Supplementary Reading

What next for the British economy?

When this recession comes to an end, what kind of shape will the British economy be in? While we cannot answer this question exactly, there have been some significant trends in recent years that will limit some possibilities and encourage some others. Some of these trends are economic; some are political.

What kind of crisis is this?

As Phil Mullan and others have pointed out, the current crisis hinges on the changed balance of global production. The decline of manufacturing in the West relative to the East has created a disequilibrium which underlies the global credit crisis. How this disequilibrium is resolved, and over what period, is impossible to predict. However, it seems unlikely that we will return to the status quo ante. Politics is concentrated economics, and the changed nature of global production and the production of wealth has to cause changes in the distribution of world power.

If we wanted to summarise what has happened to the British economy in the past 10 years, it would be as follows:

1. Investment and growth have remained relatively subdued, compared with previous periods and with more dynamic growth areas, while at the same time being fairly stable;

2. The UK has benefited from high levels of foreign direct investment;

3. The finance sector became more important to the UK in both an absolute and a relative sense, and both domestically and in relation to the world economy, while manufacturing continued its long-term decline;

4. Household wealth grew mainly as a result of the housing bubble and the rise in the stock market, which along with easy credit and cheap imports led to a boom in retail consumption;

5. Total employment grew mainly as a result of the growth of the public sector, funded partly from the growth of the finance sector and partly from government borrowing.

Looked at in this way, we can see that the crisis has taken a form that presents almost the worst of all possible worlds for Britain. The recession has hit Britain hardest in its most exposed parts:

a. The crisis began in the financial sector, the most dynamic part of the UK economy, leading to a knock-on process through the rest of the economy;

b. The crisis has become a crisis of credit, thus affecting the ability of businesses, homebuyers and individual consumers to continue to borrow;

c. Public finances were already deep in the red, limiting the ability of the UK government to use fiscal policy to combat the crisis.

Before we look at each of these points in detail it should also be noted that the political response to the crisis has been shaped by the political culture of the past 10 years, too, both from the point of view of governments and from the public.

In many ways this recession has been a crisis of politics as much as of the economy. We shall return to this in the conclusion.

A low-growth, low-investment economy

As can be seen from the graph below, business investment growth in the UK has reached a lower plateau in the past 10 years compared with the previous 20 years.

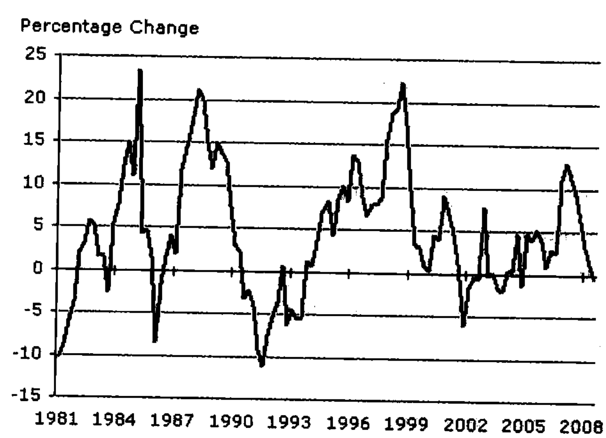
The UK economy grew for 63 quarters prior to the third quarter of 2008. GDP grew at this time at an average of three per cent. While this may seem a respectable growth rate, the growth has been increasingly debt-financed and in unproductive sectors of the economy. Also bear in mind that the current fall of GDP growth to 7.5 per cent in China is considered a potential crisis.

It is clear as well that there has been a flattening out of growth and retraction through this period. It is this flattening which British Prime Minister Gordon Brown cited in his claim that there would be an "end to boom and bust". Another way to look at this flattening, however, is as the sign of an economy which had no great engines in it to make it leap forward. Indeed, the credit crunch reveals this very fact.

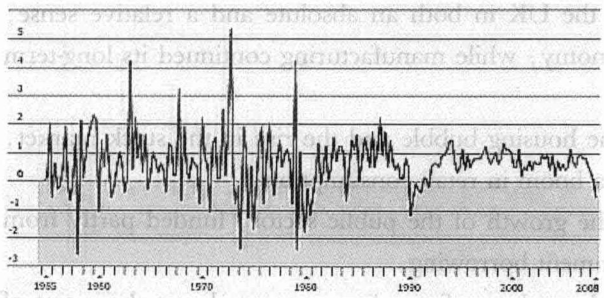
Productivity has improved against Western-based competitors but remains at a lower rate.

Foreign Direct Investment

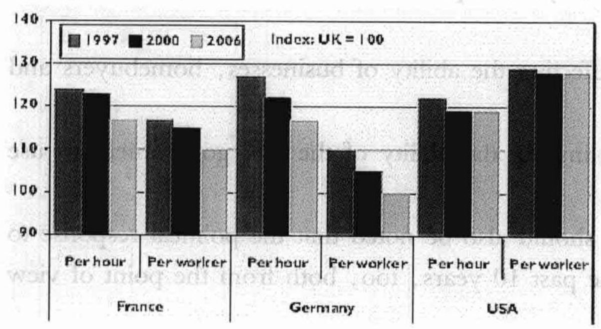
Britain is the second-largest recipient of foreign direct investment in the world, behind the US. In the past year it received $224billion. A recent survey by KPMG predicts that Britain will be second



Total business investment percentage change, quarter on corresponding quarter of previous year



Quarter-on-quarter gross domestic product growth (per cent) in market prices since 1955



Output per hour worked and per worker relative to the UK

preference for financial services investment, first for property and first for transport. It listed the factors involved in making these decisions, in descending order, as follows.

- access to new customers
- political stability
- impartial rule of law
- infrastructure
- regulatory climate
- tax regime
- quality of labour

In the past year, investment in UK technology, media and telecoms has risen threefold, largely as a result of investment from the US, and now stands at £12.6billion. This compares to £40billion at the height of the dot com boom in 2000.

The service economy and the financial sector's key role in GDP

It is true that the reputation of both British-based and American finance houses has been seriously affected by recognition of the processes leading up to the credit crunch, and the inadequacies of the regulatory system in managing both the problems in the wholesale market and more general lending behaviour.

The main long-term trend in the UK economy has been a shift away from manufacturing towards services. Services in total now make up 75 per cent of the output (gross domestic product, or GDP) of the UK. In 1975 it was 55 per cent. Manufacturing is down to 13 per cent from 21 per cent in 1986.

	Output (GVA) share (%)		Ppt change in share of output
	2006	1996	1996—2006
Real estate, renting and business services	24.8	19.1	5.7
Manufacturing	13.2	21.1	7.9
wholesale and retall trade	12.1	11.6	0.5
Financial intermediation (excl. FISIM)	9.4	6.5	2.9
FISIM	5.0	3.3	1.7
Health and social work	7.3	6.4	0.9
Transport storage and communications	7.2	7.8	−0.6
Construction	5.7	5.1	0.6
Education	5.6	5.4	0.2
Other social and personal services	5.4	4.3	1.1
Public administration and defence	5.1	5.8	−0.7
Hotels and restaurants	3.1	2.7	0.4
Mining and quarrying	2.4	2.9	−0.4
Electricity, gas and water	2.7	2.3	0.4
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	0.9	1.8	−0.8

Changes in sector shares of output - broad industry sectors

Within the services sector, there has been an increase in the weight of financial and business services. Between 1996 and 2006, these services rose from 25 per cent to 34 per cent of GDP. Within the services sector, financial services now represent 10 per cent of GDP, up from six per cent in 1996.

Net exports of financial services have grown from £3billion in 1991 to £23billion in 2006, to become the largest part of services exports. The UK is the global leader in the export of financial services, having 24.4 per cent of the total.

London holds the top spot as the world's most important international financial centre, ahead of New York City. In all segments, including cross-border lending, foreign equities turnover, foreign exchange turnover, exchange traded derivatives turnover, over-the-counter derivatives turnover, marine insurance net premium income, international bonds, fund management, hedge funds, private equity and initial public offerings (IPO), London holds the largest share.

The London effect

London depends heavily on the success of financial and business services, and the UK depends heavily on London - although Edinburgh, Glasgow, Leeds, Manchester, Birmingham and Bristol are also emerging as important financial centres.

London's role as a financial hub for world finance is reflected in the weight it has within the UK economy. London has 12 per cent of the UK population, but produces 19 per cent of GDP and 15 per cent of UK jobs. London is a net contributor to the UK economy by around £15billion per annum and contributes 18 per cent of all tax revenues.

However, the economy of London is heavily dependent on the health of the financial and business services sector. These services make up a third of all jobs in London, while all forms of manufacturing together represent only nine per cent. The rest of London's jobs are in different forms of support and personal services or in the public sector.

House prices, debt and the credit crisis

I believe that new net mortgage lending is very likely to fall below zero in 2009 (compared to around £40billion in 2008 and £108billion in 2007) with only a modest recovery likely in 2010. No new net mortgage lending across a full calendar year would be unprecedented and is likely to be associated with further weakness in consumer spending and an increase in unemployment. In the housing market it is difficult to see why this would not also involve further house price falls and fewer housing starts.

The bubble in house prices has been unwinding over the past year. How important was it for the prosperity of the past 10 years?

The value of residential housing as a percentage of total UK non-financial asset values rose from 50 per cent to 61 per cent between 1999 and 2007. Over the past two years home owners have been withdrawing equity at a rate equivalent to about five per cent of post-tax income, or around £42billion per annum, in order to spend on other things. This helps to explain why, despite only moderate wage rises, there was a growing sense of prosperity in the UK.

By the second quarter of 2008, equity withdrawal had reversed and homeowners paid back into their mortgages or paid for housing by cash to the tune of £2.8billion, thus reducing their spending power.

Saving and debt

Household saving fell from 10 per cent of income in 1997 to two per cent in 2007, while personal debt in the UK, comprised of mortgages, loans and credit cards, rose to £1.444trillion by 2008. This

compares with household wealth of £3.7trillion of housing assets and over £4trillion of financial assets.

Household debt represents more than one year's total GDP rising at a faster rate than GDP, by 7.3 per cent compared to 5.1 per cent for GDP. We would all have to work for more than a whole year without consuming anything to clear the debt.

By the end of 2005, UK banks were no longer financing lending from customer deposits but began to borrow from the wholesale markets. In an attempt to spread the risk from this over-borrowing, debt was sold and resold. As The Sunday Times (London) pointed out:

"Everything from mortgages to credit card debts to multi-billion loans given to private equity companies were packaged up into bonds and sold to hedge funds, pension funds and other large institutions."

It was from this point that the UK became over-exposed on the debt front. Essentially we were living beyond our means. Currently, the amount owed by UK banks to global markets is around £740billion.

Growth of the public sector

Between 1999 and 2007 manufacturing jobs in the UK fell from 4.5million to 3.3million. In the same period jobs in the financial and business services sector grew from 5.3million to 6.5million, and jobs in the public sector grew from 8.4million to 9.9million.

The *Financial Times* claims that around two thirds of jobs created since 1998 have been in the public sector. Most strikingly, within that figure, of the 1.07million jobs created in the public sector, 963,000 were taken by women in health, education, social care and social administration.

Political responses to the recession

For a long period after the financial crisis began, the UK government's only intervention was to bail out Northern Rock. There was no attempt to boost the economy through fiscal means, as the US government attempted via tax rebates in early 2008. Nor was there any recognition of the need to cut interest rates until the autumn of 2008. The predominant attitude was that the market should be allowed to sort itself out, thus continuing the managerial approach to the economy which has typified New Labour.

The failure of leadership during the recession has roots in the decline of politics. For example, an out-of-touch political establishment was afraid that inflation would provoke struggles for higher wages, thus leading to a delay in making interest rate cuts beyond what was desirable.

Since the onset of the recession proper in the last quarter of 2008, most public discussion has largely taken place around the issue of consumption rather than production, with the emphasis on stimulating consumption via public spending.

Public response

The most alarming feature at present is the fatalistic public mood. The slump is being discussed as if it were a natural catastrophe, like the arrival of the comet that is said to have destroyed the dinosaurs. Given the semi-paralysis of political leaders it is hardly surprising that the overwhelming public response to the recession so far has been passive acceptance. As long as this is the case then it is unlikely that public debate will turn to finding ways out of this catastrophe and looking to the future.

This passivity has gone side-by-side with an outburst of hedonism and escapism; rates of sexually transmitted diseases shot up in Canary Wharf once the downturn set in while the 118 telephone directory services reported that they had experienced "a sharp increase in number of requests for sex shops, lap dancing clubs and escort agencies".

More regulation

The Financial Services Authority will be beefed up in response to the credit crunch. It is planned to take on an extra 218 jobs, giving it a total of 3,000. It is clear that for the time being, at least, the message is that the finance sector needs to be both externally and internally policed more thoroughly.

The struggle for democracy and for growth

"Some countries, such as Britain, which has hitched its prosperity more completely to the wealth generated by the City of London, may wish that their economies were more "real" in 2009. The idea that Britain's economy can rely solely on finance — exporting banks and importing goods — is surely dead."

In the UK we have been living beyond our means. We have been consuming the product of somebody else's labour rather than investing in it. The instinct of UK politicians is not to confront this but to put off the day of reckoning in the hope that something will turn up. When that day comes, it will mean cuts in consumption for the poorest.

The failures of the UK and other Western governments to react effectively to this crisis are a product of the lack of real democracy and leadership in the West. In a sense this recession marks the point where the crisis of politics, which has infected the world for many years, has now spread to the economy. It is not only political leaders who are bereft of ideas; business leaders, economists and academics are equally at a loss. We should see this recession as an opportunity to develop arguments for a new type of politics based on real democracy.

The relative over exposure of the UK to the global financial system means that within the current parameters the UK is over-dependent on international developments. While there is always scope for the economy to recover — for example the falling value of the pound may accelerate foreign direct investment - the real problem of a shrinking productive base will not go away. The UK requires a political and cultural revolution in order for the economy to recover and thrive in the future. A more innovative business environment cannot thrive in a generally risk-averse culture that is wedded to welfarism, state intervention and regulation.

Further Reading

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Useful Websites

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2. http://business.timesonline.co.uk/tol/business/
3. http://www.statistics.gov.uk/hub/economy/index.html
4. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economy_of_the_United_Kingdom

Chapter 7

Foreign Relations



导 读

Introduction

在近代历史中，英国的外交在一个世纪中发生了重大的变化。从第一次世界大战前的“日不落帝国”，到一战后“扶德抑法”的外交，再到第二次世界大战受到德国的重创，最后在第二次世界大战后逐渐被美国超越。英国在历史的舞台上长袖善舞，根据国力以及世界格局的发展，不断的变化着与其他国家的关系。本章将回顾这段历史，以英国为主线，展示整个世界的发展与变化。

Yesterday's and Today's Britain

In its imperial prime, Britain ruled a third of the globe. The British empire extended from India to north Canada, from Hong Kong and Singapore to South America, from Australia to the South Pacific.

As late as 1945, this was still the case. After a lengthy fight with the Axis powers, the United Kingdom eventually emerged victorious and with its empire still largely intact. While some former colonies like Canada and Australia had been granted their political independence, they still looked to Britain as the centre of their political and cultural world. In WWII, these two countries were fighting with Britain side by side to defeat Hitler's army. When the war ended, Britain was the largest military power in Western Europe. It left a big influence on the postwar international order.

The age of imperialism was over after the Second World War mainly because the British could no longer afford to maintain its empire. Britain had won the war by paying a huge price in terms of lives and economic destruction. The United States and the Soviet Union soon emerged as new "superpowers" because of their military superiority. The end of the British empire was surprisingly fast. In 1946, Jordan, in the Middle East, was granted independence. The following year, India and Pakistan followed suit. In 1948, Burma and Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) were granted independence and left the Commonwealth as well, refusing to recognise the British monarch as the head of their new states. Throughout the next few decades, the process of decolonization continued as other territories and possessions received their independence or were returned to their rightful rulers.

Today Britain no longer rules a vast overseas empire, but it still participates as an equal member in the European Union. It navy is not as powerful as it was in the imperial time, but it does have an independent nuclear deterrent and technologically advanced armed forces. While the world markets are dominated nowadays by the Japanese yen and the American dollar, the British economy ranks about sixth in the world in terms of size, and, as a banking centre, it retains considerable influence on the international economy.

How Foreign Policy Is Made

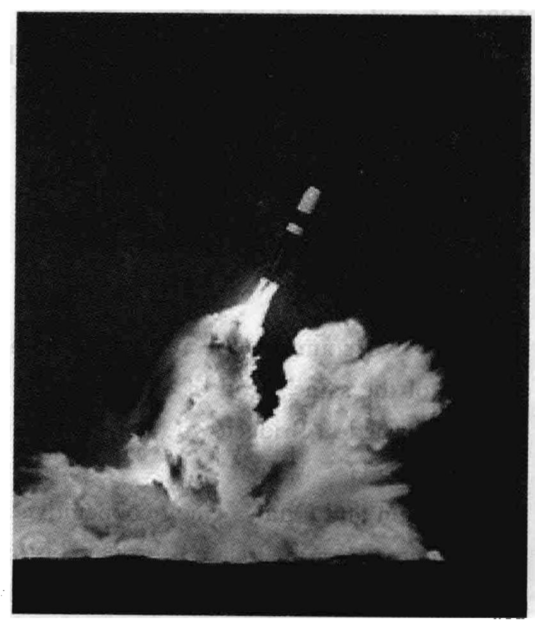
The Prime Minister and Cabinet decide on the general direction of Britain's foreign policy. The main government department involved is the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO), but many other government ministries also play a part in formulating and executing the government's decisions.

The Ministry of Defence also plays an important role in Britain's foreign policy making. It is responsible for ensuring Britain's defence and managing Britain's involvement in its military treaty commitments. The Department of Trade and Industry is concerned with formulating international trade policy and managing British commercial relations with other countries.

Another influential player in Britain's foreign policy is the Treasury. The Treasury makes decisions on how much money other departments can have each year. If the Treasury decides to give more money to the Overseas Development Agency (the government department in charge of distributing foreign aid) or less money to the military, their own policies will have to be changed accordingly.

Foreign Relations of the United Kingdom

The diplomatic foreign relations of the United Kingdom are implemented by the United Kingdom's *Foreign and Commonwealth Office*. The UK was the world's foremost power during the 19th and early 20th centuries. Throughout history it has wielded significant influence upon other nations via the British Empire, and until the 1950s was considered a superpower. However, the cost of two World Wars and the process of decolonisation lessened this influence. Nevertheless, the United Kingdom remains a major power and a permanent member of the *United Nations Security Council*, a Member State of the European Union, and a founding member of the *G7*, *G8*, *G20*, *NATO*, *OECD*, *WTO*, *Council of Europe*, *OSCE*, and the *Commonwealth of Nations*. The UK's most notable alliance is its "Special Relationship" with the United States. Britain's close allies include European Union and NATO members, Commonwealth nations and others such as Japan.



A test launch of a Trident II MIRV SLBM from one of the Royal Navy's Vanguard class submarines

Britain's global presence and influence is further amplified through its trading relations, development assistance, and its armed forces, which maintain approximately eighty military installations and other deployments around the globe.

The Army, Navy and Air Force are collectively

known as the British Armed Forces and officially as HM Armed Forces. The three forces are managed by the Ministry of Defence and controlled by the Defence Council, chaired by the Secretary of State for Defence.

Britain and the Commonwealth of Nations

The UK has varied relationships with the countries that make up the Commonwealth of Nations which originated from the British Empire. *Elizabeth II* of the United Kingdom is the head of the Commonwealth and is *head of state* of 16 of its 53 member states. Those that retain the Queen as head of state are called *Commonwealth Realms*. The European Union generally takes precedence over the Commonwealth, and the UK has tended to side with EU countries over Commonwealth countries when disputes arise. Over time several countries have been suspended from the Commonwealth for various reasons. Zimbabwe was suspended because of the authoritarian rule of its President and so too was Pakistan, but it has since returned. Countries which become republics are still eligible for membership of the Commonwealth so long as they are considered democratic. Commonwealth nations such as Malaysia enjoyed no export duties in trade with the UK before the UK concentrated their economic relationship with EU member states.

The UK was once a dominant colonial power in many countries on the continent of Africa and its multinationals remain large investors in sub-Saharan Africa. Nowadays the UK, as lead member of the Commonwealth of Nations, seeks to influence Africa through its foreign policies. Current UK disputes are with Zimbabwe over human rights violations. Tony Blair set up the Africa Commission and urged rich countries to cease demanding developing countries repay their large debts.

1. Australia

Australia — United Kingdom relations are close, marked by shared history, culture, institutions and language, extensive people-to-people links, aligned security interests, and vibrant trade and investment cooperation. The long-standing relationship between the United Kingdom and Australia formally began in 1901 when the six British Crown colonies in Australia federated, and the Commonwealth of Australia was formed as a Dominion of the British Empire. Australia fought alongside Britain in World War I, notably at Gallipoli, and again in World War II. Andrew Fisher, Australian prime minister from 1914 to 1916, declared that Australia would defend the United Kingdom "to the last man and the last shilling". Until 1949, the United Kingdom and Australia shared a common nationality code. The final constitutional ties between United Kingdom and Australia ended in 1986 with the passing of the *Australia Act 1986*.

2. Barbados

The two countries are related through common history, the Commonwealth of Nations and their sharing of the same Head of State, Queen Elizabeth II as their Monarch. The British High Commission was established in Bridgetown, Barbados in 1967. There is a Barbadian High Commission in London.

3. Canada

London and Ottawa enjoy cooperative and intimate contact, which has grown deeper over the years; the two countries are related through history, the Commonwealth of Nations, and their sharing of the same Head of State and monarch. Both countries fought together in both World Wars, the Korean War, and more recently cooperate in the coalition in the War in Afghanistan. Both are founding members of

NATO, and also belong to the G7 (and the G8). Canada has been referred to as the "linchpin of the English-speaking world", as it connects the three anglo countries.

4. India

India was a colony of Britain since the British East India Company ruled over large parts of central and eastern India from the 18th century before that. Since 1947, relations between the two countries have been good, now there are some disagreements over the status of Chagos Archipelago, which involves Mauritius. Around two million Indian immigrants live in the United Kingdom. India is the second biggest investor in the UK following the US. Indian culture and cuisine are very popular in the UK. Tea is imported to Britain from India. Both India and the UK are members of the Commonwealth of Nations.

5. Ireland

Despite a long history of conflict from English Tudor plantation in Ireland to the Irish War of independence, the UK presently works closely with the government of the Republic of Ireland in areas concerning the peace process in Northern Ireland as well as on many security issues. In 1949 the Irish Houses of Parliament passed the Republic of Ireland Act, making the Republic of Ireland officially fully independent; the country withdrew from the Commonwealth. Under the *Ireland Act 1949* Irish citizens are treated as though they are Commonwealth citizens and not aliens for the purposes of law. Until 1998, the Republic of Ireland claimed Northern Ireland, but this was rescinded under the *Belfast Agreement* through an amendment of the Irish Constitution, which now states an aspiration to peaceful unity.



The Yang di-Pertuan Agong in a carriage with Queen Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom on the state visit to London, 1974.

6. Malaysia

Both countries have high commissions in each other's capital cities. Both countries are full members of the Commonwealth of Nations. Both the UK and Malaysia are part of the Five Powers Defence Arrangements.

7. New Zealand

New Zealand also had extremely close economic relations with the United Kingdom up to the 1960s. In 1955, Britain took 65.3 percent of New Zealand's exports, and only during the following decades did this dominant position begin to decline as the United Kingdom oriented itself more towards the European Union, with the share of exports going to Britain having fallen to only 6.2 percent in 2000. Historically, some industries, such as dairying, a major economic factor in the former colony, had even more dominant trade links, with 80-100% of all cheese and butter exports going to Britain from around 1890 to 1940. This strong bond also supported the mutual feelings for each other in other areas.

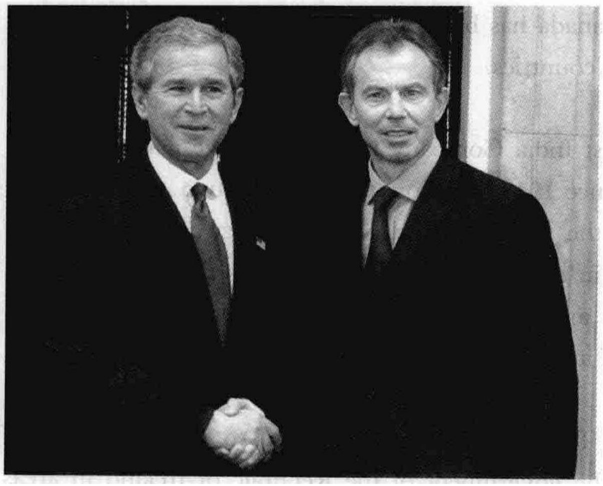
8. Nigeria

Nigeria, formerly a colony, gained independence from Britain in 1960.

9. Pakistan

Pakistan was a colony of Britain from 1 November 1858 to 13 August 1947 as part of the Indian

Empire. Both UK and Pakistan are active members of the Commonwealth of Nations.



Former British Prime Minister Tony Blair (left) conducting diplomacy, hosted by then President of the United States, George W. Bush at Camp David in March 2003.

Britain and the United States

The United Kingdom and the United States are close military allies. The two countries share cultural similarities, as well as military research and intelligence facilities. The UK has purchased military technology from the USA such as *Tomahawk cruise missiles* and *Trident nuclear missiles*, and the US has purchased equipment from Britain (e.g. Harrier Jump Jet). The USA also maintains a large number of military personnel in the UK. In recent years, the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom and the President of the United States have often been close friends, for example Tony Blair and Bill Clinton and later with George W. Bush and in the 1980s Margaret Thatcher and Ronald Reagan. Present British policy indicates that the relationship with the United States represents Britain's "most important bilateral relationship".

Britain and Europe

The UK has had good relations with the rest of Europe since the Second World War. It became a member of the European Economic Community in 1973. The EEC eventually became the European Union through the *Maastricht Treaty* of the European Union in 1993. Although the UK does not use the Euro and is not a member of the Eurozone, it still plays a leading role in the day to day workings of the EU. The UK has clashed with other Member States of the European Union, particularly with France and Germany, most recently over the US-led war with Iraq.

1. France-UK relations

Stemming from hundreds of years of rivalry and enmity between the two countries, the British engage in a lively and highly tongue-in-cheek relationship and mostly friendly rivalry with France. There have been continual clashes publicly and through national newspapers over such issues as the *Common Agricultural Policy* (CAP) where France is seen as a major net recipient and unduly so. However in important times the United Kingdom and France normally stick close together. The two nations maintain a mutual respect for one another as both countries suffered greatly during both World Wars in which both were members of the Allies.

Other weighty topics were: expansion of France's military role in NATO and Afghanistan, a joint nuclear energy program, immigration, and the Subprime mortgage crisis that has spread from the United States to Europe. Also France is very supportive of the British rule in the Falkland Islands and provided invaluable help to the British during the Falklands War.

2. German-UK relations

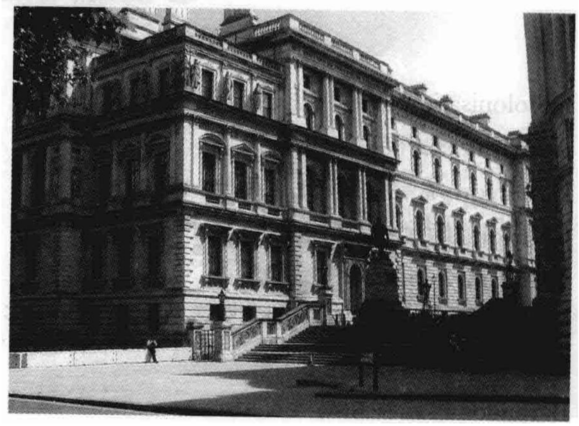
Since World War II the UK has enjoyed good relations with West Germany, as well as the reunited Germany. The UK also maintains a large military presence in Germany since World War II. Tony Blair

and Gerhard Schr? der also enjoyed a good relationship although this was tempered by the Iraq War, where Germany aligned with France in not supporting military action against Iraq. The former German Democratic Republic was a socialist state with which the UK was naturally hostile towards during the Cold War. Germany and the UK are both members of the EU.

Britain and China

Although on opposing sides of the Cold War, both countries were allies during World War II, and are members of the UN. But because of the Cold War, First and Second Opium War, and the status of Hong Kong, and other issues, China-UK relations at some points in history have been complicated, but better at other times.

The Foreign and Commonwealth Office



The Foreign and Commonwealth Office

The Foreign and Commonwealth Office, commonly called the Foreign Office or the FCO, is the British government department responsible for promoting the interests of the United Kingdom overseas, created in 1968 by merging the Foreign Office and the Commonwealth Office.

The head of the FCO is the Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs, commonly abbreviated to "Foreign Secretary" (currently David Miliband). This position is regarded as one of the three most prestigious appointments in the Cabinet, alongside those of Chancellor of the Exchequer and Home Secretary. Together with the Prime Minister, these comprise the Great Offices of State

British Security and Denfence Policy

The Ministry of Defence (MoD) is the United Kingdom government department responsible for implementation of government defence policy and is the headquarters of the British Armed Forces.

The MoD states that its principal objectives are to defend the United Kingdom and its interests and to strengthen international peace and stability. With the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War the MoD does not foresee any short-term conventional military threat; rather, it has identified weapons of mass destruction, international terrorism, and failed and failing states as the overriding threats to the UK's interests. The MoD also manages day to day running of the armed forces, contingency planning and defence procurement.

Britain spends more on defence than most other advanced industrial countries and maintains larger professional forces. It is the third largest spender in the world and is ranked fifth or sixth in terms of its military power. It is a member of the nuclear "club", maintaining an extensive nuclear capability.

The core of British defence policy is its participation in the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation, commonly known as NATO. The purpose of NATO is to protect member states against aggression, to provide a foundation for security in Europe, and to provide a forum for transatlantic defence cooperation.

NATO has promised it is a threat to no country and that its weapons will only be used in self-defence.

Apart from commitments to NATO, Britain retains an independent nuclear weapons capability. Britain has three or four nuclear-armed submarines. This nuclear force is assigned to NATO but is fully under the command of the British government, and could be used independently if the British government ever thought is was necessary.

Nuclear weapons are important for the prestige of a country as well as its protection. All of the permanent UN security Council members have independent nuclear weapons capabilities.

Glossary

Decolonisation 去殖民化

Authoritarian 权力主义者,专制者,独裁者

Dominion 统治权,领土, 疆土, 版图

Gallipoli [意大利] 加利波利

Nationality code 国籍编号

Bridgetown 布里奇顿（拉丁美洲岛国巴巴多斯首都）

Barbados 巴巴多斯岛

Linchpin 关键

Chagos Archipelago 查戈斯群岛

Mauritius 毛里求斯

Rescind 废除;取消;撤销

Dairying 制酪业

Euro 欧元

Eurozone 欧元区

Tongue-in-cheek 不认真的,不当真的,半开玩笑的

NATO 北大西洋公约组织

Subprime mortgage crisis (SMC) 次信贷危机

Falkland Islands 福克兰群岛（即马尔维纳斯群岛）

Ballistic 发射的;弹道(学)的; 衡量冲击强度的

Cultural Notes

1. **Foreign and Commonwealth Office** commonly called the Foreign Office or the FCO, is the British government department responsible for promoting the interests of the United Kingdom overseas, created in 1968 by merging the Foreign Office and the Commonwealth Office.
2. **G7** also known as the G-7, is the meeting of the finance ministers from a group of seven industrialized nations. It was formed in 1976, when Canada joined the Group of Six: France, Germany, Italy, Japan, United Kingdom, and United States. The finance ministers of these countries meet several times a year to discuss economic policies. Their work is supported by regular, functional meetings of officials, including the G7 Finance Deputies.
3. **G8** The Group of Eight (G8, and formerly the G6 or Group of Six and also the G7 or Group of Seven) is a forum, created by France in 1975, for governments of six countries in the world: France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States. In 1976, Canada joined the group (thus creating the G7). In becoming the G8, the group added Russia in 1997. In addition, the European Union is represented within the G8, but cannot host or chair. "G8" can refer to the member

states or to the annual summit meeting of the G8 heads of government. The former term, G6, is now frequently applied to the six most populous countries within the European Union. G8 ministers also meet throughout the year, such as the G7/8 finance ministers (who meet four times a year), G8 foreign ministers, or G8 environment ministers.

4. **G20** The Group of Twenty Finance Ministers and Central Bank Governors (known as the G-20 and also the G20 or Group of Twenty) is a group of finance ministers and central bank governors from 20 economies: 19 countries plus the European Union. Recently summits meeting at level of Heads of state have been introduced. The 2010 chair country of the G-20 is South Korea.

5. **Council of Europe** Organization of more than 40 European states formed to romote European unity, protect human rights, and facilitate social and economic progress. Established in 1949 by 10 western European states, it has devised international agreements on human rights and established a number of special bodies and expert committees on social, legal, and cultural issues. It is headquartered in Strasbourg, France. (The Council of Europe should not be confused with the European Council, which is a policy-making body of the European Union.)

6. **OSCE** Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe, international organization established as the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE) in 1973, during the cold war, to promote East-West cooperation. Headquarters are in Prague, Czech Republic. The CSCE's 1975 meeting in Helsinki, Finland, ratified the acts commonly known as the Helsinki Accords, which were signed by every European nation (except Albania, which did so later) and the United States and Canada. The OSCE is responsible for reviewing the implementation of those accords. Since the end of the cold war, it has also aimed to foster peace, prosperity, and justice in Europe. There are now 56 OSCE members, including all European nations, all former republics of the Soviet Union, and the United States and Canada.

7. **Common walth of Nations** an association comprising the United Kingdom, its dependencies, and many former British colonies that are now sovereign states with a common allegiance to the British Crown, including Canada, Australia, India, and many countries in the West Indies and Africa. It was formally established by the Statute of Westminster in 1931.

8. **The Ministry of Defence** is the United Kingdom government department responsible for implementation of government defence policy and is the headquarters of the British Armed Forces. The MoD states that its principal objectives are to defend the United Kingdom and its interests and to strengthen international peace and stability. With the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War the MoD does not foresee any short-term conventional military threat; rather, it has identified weapons of mass destruction, international terrorism, and failed and failing states as the overriding threats to the UK's interests. The MoD also manages day to day running of the armed forces, contingency planning and defence procurement.

9. **British Empire** the empire of Britain, which began in the 16th and 17th centuries with the establishment of colonies in North America and ended in the twentieth century as dozens of nations, formerly British possessions, became independent. At the empire's greatest extent, around 1900, it included Australia, Canada, India, New Zealand, vast portions of Africa, and many smaller territories throughout the world. The empire ceased to have an "emperor" in the late 1940s, when the British king renounced the title of emperor of India. The empire has been succeeded by the British

Commonwealth, which was formed in 1931.

10. **Elizabeth II** was the Queen of the United Kingdom from 1952. She became heir presumptive when her uncle, Edward VIII, abdicated and her father became king as George VI. In 1947 she married her distant cousin Philip, duke of Edinburgh, with whom she had four children, including Charles, prince of Wales. She became queen on her father's death in 1952. Increasingly aware of the modern role of the monarchy, she favoured simplicity in court life and took an informed interest in government business. In the 1990s the monarchy was troubled by the highly publicized marital difficulties of two of the queen's sons and the death of Diana, princess of Wales. In 2002 the queen's mother and sister died within two months of each other.
11. **Head of state** the head of state embodies the political community and continuity of the state, and carries out ceremonial functions associated with representing the state both at home and in foreign policy, for instance in committing the state to treaty obligations.
12. **Commonwealth realm** A Commonwealth realm is a sovereign state within the Commonwealth of Nations that has Elizabeth II as its monarch. The sixteen current realms have a combined land area of 18.8 million km2 (7.3 million mi2, excluding Antarctic claims), and a population of 134 million; all but about two million live in the six most populous states, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Papua New Guinea, New Zealand, and Jamaica.
13. **Crown colony** a Crown colony was a type of colonial administration of the British Empire. Crown colonies were ruled by a governor appointed by the Crown (and, later, the Colonial Office). Though the term was not used at the time, the first of what would later become known as Crown colonies was the Colony of Virginia in the present-day United States, after the Crown took control from the Virginia Company in 1624. The term continued to be used up until 1981, when the British Nationality Act 1981 reclassified the remaining British colonies as "British-Dependent Territories". From 2002 they have been known as British Overseas Territories.
14. **Australia Act 1986** It is the name given to a pair of two separate but related pieces of legislation: one an Act of the Parliament of Australia (No. 142 of 1985), the other an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom (c.2 1986). These Acts eliminated the remaining associations between the laws and judiciary of Australia and their counterparts in the United Kingdom. In particular, the Acts resolved the anomalous power of the United Kingdom's parliament to legislate over the individual Australian states, a power that it had exercised since colonial times and which had not been affected by the Statute of Westminster 1931.
15. **East India Company** the East India Company (also the East India Trading Company, English East India Company and then the British East India Company) was an early English joint-stock company that was formed initially for pursuing trade with the East Indies, but that ended up trading mainly with the Indian subcontinent and China.
16. **Ireland Act 1949** It is a British Act of Parliament which was intended to deal with the consequences of the Republic of Ireland Act 1948 as passed by the Irish parliament (Oireachtas). The Act is still largely in force but has been amended.
17. **Belfast Agreement** also known as the Belfast Agreement or the Good Friday Agreement, and occasionally as the Stormont Agreement, it was a major political development in the Northern Ireland peace process. It was signed in Belfast on 10 April 1998 (Good Friday) by the British and Irish

governments and endorsed by most Northern Ireland political parties. On 23 May 1998 the Agreement was endorsed by the voters of Northern Ireland in a referendum. On the same day, voters in the Republic voted separately to change their constitution in line with the Agreement. The Democratic Unionist Party (DUP) was the only large party that opposed the Agreement. The Agreement came into force on 2 December 1999.

18. **Tomahawk cruise missiles** The BGM-109 Tomahawk is a long-range, all-weather, subsonic cruise missile. Introduced by General Dynamics in the 1970s, it was designed as a medium- to long-range, low-altitude missile that could be launched from a submerged submarine. It has been improved several times and, by way of corporate divestitures and acquisitions, is now made by Raytheon. Some Tomahawks were also manufactured by McDonnell Douglas.

19. **Trident nuclear missile** a submarine-launched ballistic missile (SLBM) designed by Lockheed Martin Space Systems in the United States with multiple independently-targetable reentry vehicle (MIRV) capability. It is armed with nuclear warheads and is launched from nuclear-powered ballistic missile submarines (SSBNs). Trident missiles are carried by fourteen active US Navy *Ohio* class submarines, with U.S.-designed warheads, and four Royal Navy *Vanguard* class submarines, with British warheads.

20. **Maastricht Treaty** is agreement that established the European Union (EU) as successor to the European Community. It bestowed EU citizenship on every national of its member states, provided for the introduction of a central banking system and a common currency (see euro), and committed the member states to work toward a common foreign and security policy. Signed in 1992, it was ratified and took effect in 1993. See also European Court of Justice, European Parliament, Treaties of Rome.

21. **Common Agricultural Policy** The Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) is a system of European Union agricultural subsidies and programmes. It represents 48% of the EU's budget, £49.8 billion in 2006 (up from £48.5 billion in 2005).

22. **Falkland Islands War (1982)** Brief but undeclared war between Argentina and Great Britain over control of the Falkland Islands (Islas Malvinas) and associated island dependencies. Both countries long had claimed sovereignty over the Falklands and had been in protracted negotiations over them. On April 2, 1982, Argentina's military government, impatient with the negotiations, occupied the islands with some 10,000 troops. British prime minister Margaret Thatcher responded by sending a naval task force to the region, and within three months British forces had defeated the Argentines and reoccupied the islands. Britain lost about 250 men, and Argentina about 700. Argentina's defeat discredited its military government and helped lead to the restoration of civilian rule in 1983.

23. **Iraq War** also known as the Occupation of Iraq, The Second Gulf War Operation Iraqi Freedom, or Operation New Dawn is an ongoing military campaign which began on March 20, 2003, with the invasion of Iraq by a multinational force led by troops from the United States and the United Kingdom.

Questions for Discussion

1. Who are responsible for making Britain's foreign policy?
2. What are the countries that make up the Commonwealth of Nations?
3. Which department of the British government is responsible for promoting the interests of the United Kingdom overseas?
4. Which department of the British government is responsible for implementation of government defence policy?

Supplementary Reading

The United Kingdom fields one of the most technologically advanced and best trained armed forces in the world. According to various sources, including the Ministry of Defence, the UK has the third highest military expenditure in the world, despite only having the 27th largest military in terms of manpower. Total defence spending currently accounts for 2.5% of total national GDP. The UK maintains the largest air force and navy in the EU and second largest in NATO.

The Royal Navy is a blue-water navy, currently one of the few, along with the French Navy and the United States Navy. The Ministry of Defence signed contracts worth £3.2bn to build two new supercarrier sized aircraft carriers on 3 July 2008.

The United Kingdom is one of the five recognised countries possessing nuclear weapons, utilising the Vanguard class submarine-based Trident II ballistic missile system.

The British Armed Forces are charged with protecting the United Kingdom and its overseas territories, promoting the United Kingdom's global security interests, and supporting international peacekeeping efforts. They are active and regular participants in NATO, including the Allied Rapid Reaction Corps, as well as the Five Power Defence Arrangements, RIMPAC, and other worldwide coalition operations. Overseas garrisons and facilities are maintained at Ascension Island, Belize, Brunei, Canada, Diego Garcia, the Falkland Islands, Germany, Gibraltar, Kenya, Cyprus, and Qatar.

In 2009, the British Army had a reported strength of 146,100, the Royal Air Force had 45,210 personnel and the Navy 39,320.



British troops in Afghanistan as a part of the International Security Assistance Force

The United Kingdom Special Forces, such as the Special Air Service and Special Boat Service, provide troops trained for quick, mobile, military responses in counter-terrorism, land, maritime and amphibious operations, often where secrecy or covert tactics are required.

There are reserve forces supporting the Active military. These include the Territorial Army, the Royal Naval Reserve, Royal Marines Reserve and the Royal Auxiliary Air Force. This puts total active and reserve

duty military personnel at approximately 420,500 plus a 150,000 paramilitary force giving a total of 570,000.

Despite the United Kingdom's military capabilities, recent pragmatic defence policy has a stated assumption that "the most demanding operations" would be undertaken as part of a coalition. Setting aside the intervention in Sierra Leone, operations in Bosnia, Kosovo, Afghanistan and Iraq may all be taken as precedent. Indeed the last war in which the British military fought alone was the Falklands War of 1982, in which they were victorious.

How Gordon got his tanks on every lawn in Whitehall

He's been in Blair's shadow for nine years. But while he's been waiting, he has become the most powerful Chancellor in history, writes Heather Stewart.

It seemed churlish that just as Gordon Brown was celebrating the birth of his new baby son in Edinburgh last Monday, his shadow, George Osborne, was giving a speech in London accusing him of "empire-building" across Whitehall, sending crack Treasury troops to colonise areas usually well outside their remit.

But as his wife recovered from giving birth to baby James, Brown was still firmly in charge of what Osborne calls his "empire" — by Wednesday he had already promised to freeze fuel duty in the autumn pre-Budget report and announced the appointment of Revenue boss Sir David Varney to advise him on "transformational government".

As the day approaches when he will shift his imperial court next door into Number 10 Downing Street, understanding how Brown exercises power has become more important, and Osborne's critique has shone an unwelcome spotlight on the issue.

Chancellors of the Exchequer have long been powerful, exerting control over their cabinet colleagues by pulling the purse-strings. Former Tory Chancellor Norman Lamont says that's inevitable. "Money is at the root of everything, and Chancellors — or rather the Treasury and civil servants — do get involved in every aspect of government, because it costs money."

But like many observers, including some civil servants old enough to remember his predecessors, Ruth Lea, director of the Centre for Policy Studies, says Brown's trampling across the entire horizon of domestic policy is highly unusual. She cites the Chancellor's tendency to pepper his Budget speeches with announcements about health, education, international development, welfare policy, and many of his other favourite subjects. "There used to be an autonomy: when Kenneth Baker was Education Secretary in the 1980s, would Nigel Lawson have stood up and talked about education policy? I don't think so. Before Brown you would not have found find this free-ranging pontification."

There are practical and political reasons for the extraordinary reach of Brown's activity. First, giving up the traditional role of setting interest rates to the Bank of England, in 1997 — still regarded as his masterstroke — meant that some of the Treasury's core tasks of monitoring the economy and deciding monetary policy have become less critical.

Meanwhile, Brown's economic philosophy, which he clumsily and notoriously described in a 1995 speech as "post-neoclassical endogenous growth theory", means that he believes so-called "supply-side" policies — such as improving the planning system, making markets more competitive, fixing the transport infrastructure and so on — can have a positive impact on economic growth. That gives him a licence to

stomp all over other departments' territories in the name of improving Britain's productivity.

Third, the "understanding" between Brown and Blair, whether or not it was ever cemented in a formal deal, has left the Chancellor with control over many areas of domestic policy. Vince Cable, the Lib Dems' Treasury spokesman, says the most important reason for Brown's extensive reach is the Prime Minister's "sofa government" approach, and his lack of interest in many of the areas the Treasury has been able to dominate.

"I honestly think it's Blair's style of government which is really the source of the problem," he says. "He is very good at mood music, and style, and saying the right thing, but he's never shown the slightest interest in managing government — and that has created a vacuum that the Treasury has moved into."

One of Osborne's gripes was that Brown has taken closer control over HM Revenue and Customs, gathering it under the Treasury's wing; but insiders say it's behind-the-scenes control, not official lines of responsibility, that best characterises the Chancellor's power.

One of Brown's most effective weapons for manipulating other departments, for example, has been the independent review. It goes like this: he uses the Budget in spring or pre-Budget report in autumn to say that he has asked a public figure to examine some pressing issue. A group of civil servants then collects evidence, consults with the outside world and marshals the views of the independent chair to support a series of policy recommendations - sometimes with plenty of consultation with other departments, sometimes with very little.

Then Brown can announce, at the next Budget, or whenever the report is published, that he appreciates the hard-hitting conclusions of Sir Derek Wanless (NHS funding), Sir Peter Gershon (efficiency savings), Kate Barker (housing), or whoever it might be, and he'll do his best to act on their recommendations (which, of course, he's been expecting). It's much easier for other ministers to co-operate than to try to rubbish one of these reports, which are usually fat, well-researched and stuffed with graphs, charts and appendices.

The controversial 1p increase in National Insurance contributions in 2002, for example, followed directly from the recommendations of the Wanless review, which Brown used to cement the case for a new, much more generous, financial settlement for the health service. Currently in the pipeline are a much-delayed study of local government funding by academic Sir Michael Lyons; a review of transport infrastructure by former BA boss Sir Rod Eddington; and a report on skills shortages by Lord Leitch, former chief executive of Zurich Financial Services.

Brown's other favoured tool for influencing his cabinet colleagues is more akin to the long-established Treasury method of threatening to turn off the cash taps. With each of its three-year spending reviews, the Treasury has thrown out a web of "public service agreements" — the detailed targets that each department agrees to meet. (The Department of Health signed up to cut smoking rates and halt the rise in childhood obesity, for example.) Osborne called this approach "micro-management", and Cable says broad targets like these are not the best way of running large departments, many of which have thousands of front-line staff. "This government has almost no perception of the problems of managing large organisations," he says. "You have bright young 23-year-olds in the Treasury who are making things up, and they've got to be implemented on the ground."

In the current era of ruthless efficiency savings, and with a spending review approaching in summer 2007 that promises to be tight, Treasury officials are returning to their time-honoured role of pressurising

other departments to save money.

Brown's recent public pronouncements, on subjects as diverse as nuclear weapons, school cadet forces and the nature of Britishness, suggest he is gearing himself up for the premiership. Speculation has already begun about whom he will install to do his bidding in Number 11, and how many of the Treasury's new-found powers he will strip away and take with him to his new job. Next summer's spending review has been billed as setting the government's priorities for years to come, so it's hard to imagine Brown not taking a major role in it, even if he is Prime Minister.

However, some observers warn that Brown's long-standing modus operandi of waging political war across many fronts, oblivious to the time-honoured departmental division of responsibility, will be hard to maintain for a Prime Minister, who has foreign policy, among other onerous responsibilities, to think about. Lea warns that if the Chancellor isn't careful, his empire will go the way of so many others — and collapse under the weight of "imperial over-reach".

Further Reading

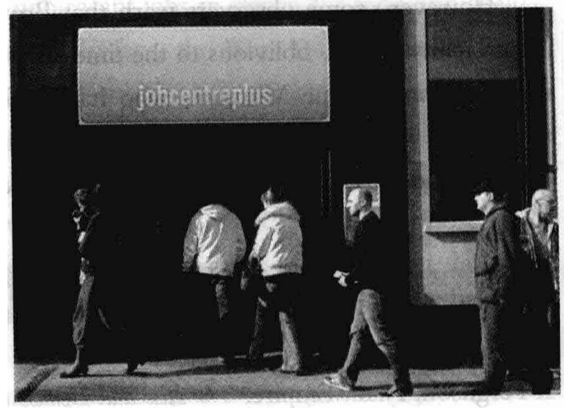
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Chapter 8

Social Welfare



导 读
Introduction

英国的社会福利体制经历了长达几个世纪的渐进式发展。1601 年英国颁行了第一部《济贫法》，规定各教区负有责任救助贫民。这是最早的国家干预基本生活保障问题的立法，标志着国家通过立法形式介入济贫事务。此后，英国又于 1834 年通过了《济贫法修正案》，将对济贫的分散管理改为集中管理，将保障公民生存规定为政府的义务。第二次世界大战后，社会福利体系发展迅猛，日趋完备。1942 年英国贝弗里奇发表题为《社会保险及有关服务》的报告，即著名的"贝弗里奇报告"，制定了以社会保险为核心的全面的社会保障计划，提出了一系列的理念和原则：社会保障应遵循强制性、普遍性原则；社会保障的管理应该统一；国家有责任防止贫困和不幸，社会福利是一种社会责任；实现充分就业；每个国民都有权从社会获得救济，使自己的生活水平达到国民最低生活标准。战后，英国政府按照贝弗里奇的设计，于 1946 年至 1948 年间通过并实施了《家庭补助法》、《国民卫生保健服务法》、《工伤保险法》、《国民救助法》、《社会保险法》等一整套社会保障法规。1948 年，英国宣布已建成为世界上第一个"福利国家"，福利政策涉及国民保险，国民保健，住房，教育和个人社会福利等 5 个主要方面。形成了包含社会保险、住房、儿童、老人等方面的社会补助，对低收入人口、贫穷老人、失业者等社会阶层的社会救助，以及保健服务和社会服务的整套体系。本章主要介绍英国的社会福利体系。

Ⅰ. Welfare

What is Welfare?

Before we come to the discussion of welfare state, it is very necessary for us to be clear about the meaning of the word "welfare". As an ambiguous term, it is often used in different senses. Firstly, "welfare" in many cases equals to "well-being", which refers to a general state of health, happiness and prospering of an individual or the society as a whole. Secondly, welfare is also used to refer to the range of services that are provided to protect people in a number of conditions, including childhood, sickness

and old age. The idea of "welfare state" is derived from this sense.

Different models of welfare can be found in practice in different countries throughout the world.

Residual Welfare

In this model, welfare is mainly directed towards and provided for the poor, for they can not manage living without help and assistance from the government such as money, food and other necessities. This used to be the dominant model in most English-speaking countries, largely owing to the spread of the ideas conveyed in the English Poor Law (1598-1948).

Solidarity

Solidarity in this context can be understood as common action, mutual responsibility and shared risks. Welfare in much of Europe today is based on the principle of solidarity. Many of the rights that people enjoy are particular rather than general; whether or not an individual can enjoy a certain benefit depends on his or her circumstances, work record or family relationships. Therefore, the welfare is not provided to the whole population as general rights which are protected by the state. As a result, some people are excluded or not part of the networks which support most people in ordinary life-networks of family, friends, community and employment.

Institutional Welfare

An institutional system is one in which need is viewed as a normal part of social life. Therefore, welfare is provided for the population as a whole, in the same way as public services like roads or schools. In an institutional system, welfare is not just for the poor: it is for everyone.

Industrial Performance

Welfare here is regarded and used as the so-called "handmaiden" to the economy. It prepares and services the capacity of the workforce, which helps the employers. And in a broad sense, it serves as an economic regulator, which stimulates demand when production is low.

At present, social welfare in the UK and Sweden are institutional. In the UK, welfare coverage is extensive, although sometimes the benefits and services provided are not very satisfactory; and in Sweden, institutional welfare offers universal "minimum standards" for all its citizens. France is solidaristic, but the system has managed to extend existing solidarities to bring more people into the net. The German system is work oriented: it excludes some people who have not contributed and it does not extend to those having the highest incomes; and the US mainly follows the residual approach to its welfare system.

According to social policy analysts, there is a more general way to categorize western welfare systems: three types of welfare are observed — the corporatist model, the social democratic model and the liberal model. The corporatist model is typical in continental Europe, which is work-oriented and based on individual contributions. The social democratic model is found mainly in Scandinavia (northern Europe), which stresses universal values and is paid for by taxation. And the liberal model found in the UK and US is based on a clear distinction between the deserving and undeserving poor, with limits on benefit payments for potential workers.

Early Developments of Social Welfare in the UK

The welfare system in the UK as it exists today has experienced gradual developments for several centuries. Before the Industrial Revolution, welfare was the responsibility of local communities or religious

organizations. What's more, charitable and voluntary organizations also played a major role in helping the poor, sick and disabled; this fine tradition continues even till today.

It was not until 1601 that the fist comprehensive legislation — the Elizabethan Poor Law for relief of the poor was enacted in England, which marked the beginning of the state's direct involvement in social welfare. According to the Poor Law, parish was made the "overseer" of relief and the basic unit of administration, which provided relief for orphans and the poor who were sick or aged. It also provided aid for those "deserving poor" who were able to work but became victims of economic circumstances beyond their control. Workhouses, where people did very unpleasant jobs in return for food and shelter, were built later by parishes to employ paupers and the indigent. In fact, the Poor Law had rather limited effects, for it discouraged people from relying on it. Poverty and need were at that time believed to be caused by the unwillingness to work and provide for oneself. The state was not supposed to have extensive responsibility for social services.

In 1795 a new arrangement called the Speenhamland system attempted to help workers whose wages did not provide a minimum standard of living. Instead of fixing minimum wages for the poor laborers, the practice intended to use public funds and raise workers' income to an agreed level. This allowance system lasted until the enactment of the Poor Law Amendment Act (1834).

Under the influence of the Industrial Revolution, towns expanded, population grew rapidly, and the "modern unemployment" appeared for the first time, all of which led to the increasing poor population. The Poor Law Amendment of 1834 again emphasized the spirit underlying the legislation of 1601: individuals should be responsible for their own well-being. It standardized the system of poor relief throughout Britain, and groups of parishes were combined into unions responsible for workhouses. The new law forbidden relief in all forms to the able men in their own homes and made all who wished to receive aid live in workhouses in the aim of stimulating workers to seek employment rather than charity. Conditions in the workhouses were deliberately harsh and degrading so as to make it a last alternative for the poor. Later in the 19th century, conditions in the workhouses improved, owing to the growth of humanitarian feeling.

The 20th century witnessed major reforms that occurred in the system. The phenomenon of industrial unemployment in the 20th century showed that poverty was more a structural economic problem than the fault of those unemployed. As a result, social welfare services and the social security schemes were established, which replaced workhouses altogether in the first half of the 20th century and covered retirement and medical costs for some people.

Welfare Reforms in Post-WWII Period

The basis of modern social welfare is the provision of assistance against economic insecurity through government programs. The cornerstone of this modern system was laid in Germany under Chancellor Otto von Bismarck. Under his influence, a series of legislation was enacted in Germany, including a sickness and maternity law in 1883, a work injury law in 1884 and an old age assistance law in 1889. Other European nations followed suit and by 1910 a comprehensive welfare system had begun to emerge. Britain was no exception to this general trend.

In 1942 amid the Second World War, British government published a report entitled *Social Insurance and Allied Services*. It had been written by Sir William Beveridge, a highly regarded economist and expert

on unemployment problems, thus the document is also known as the Beveridge Report.

The Beveridge Report quickly became the blueprint for the modern British "welfare state", and Sir William Beveridge — the author is said to be the person who helped shape Britain's welfare state policies and institutions in the post-World War II period.

The Beveridge Report aimed to provide a comprehensive system of social insurance "from cradle to grave". It proposed that all working people should pay a weekly contribution to the state. In return, benefits would be paid to the unemployed, the sick, the retired and the widowed. Beveridge wanted to ensure that there was an acceptable minimum standard of living in Britain below which nobody fell.

Although it was a complex paper of more than 300 pages, the publication of the Beveridge Report was a huge success. Opinion polls reported that the majority of the British public welcomed the report's findings and wished to see them implemented as quickly as possible.

The Beveridge Report was also the result of longer term changes in the attitudes of politicians and the public towards social welfare. As has been discussed above, at earlier times in Britain it had been common to lay the blame for poverty and unemployment on the individuals. What's more, since a wide variety of charitable and philanthropic organizations existed, it was not felt that the state needed to provide a comprehensive system of welfare support. However, since the early years of the 20th century, a number of measures taken by the government were challenging the notion of non-interventions on the part of state. Though not universal in scope, the Old Age Pensions Act (1908) and the National Insurance Act (1911) were introduced and greatly extended welfare rights in Britain. On the basis of these legislation, the Beveridge Report firmly established the principle of state intervention and put a stronger emphasis on the collective responsibility for social welfare.

After the World War II, the most influential and extensive reforms took place in the UK. To build a welfare state, the government undertook measures covering health, education, employment and social security etc. to provide for the people of the United Kingdom "from cradle to grave".

For instance, the National Insurance Act in 1946 set to create a comprehensive system of unemployment, sickness, maternity and pension benefits funded by employers, employees and the government. More importantly, the National Health Service Act instituted for the first time in Britain a universal state health service. The Act, which came into force in July 1948, provided free diagnosis and treatment of illness at home or in hospital, including dental and ophthalmic treatment. In 1948 National Assistance Act, which abolished the Poor Law while making provision for welfare services, was also introduced. These Acts were timed to come in to force on the same day — 7th June 1948, which is later regarded as the day that modern UK welfare system was founded.

Changing Attitudes towards Welfare

Although the postwar reforms in the welfare system led to substantial rise in public spending, a domestic political consensus was established. As the sociologist TH Marshall wrote, "It is generally agreed that... the overall responsibility for the welfare of the citizens must remain with the state". This general idea was widely held and lasted for nearly 30 years when in 1970s attitudes towards the 1945 approach to welfare began to change. Mainly due to the increasing costs of social services (especially the NHS) and high unemployment rates, many believed that the system needed some changes.

Criticisms of the post-war reforms include that the system is too expensive. Demand for welfare has

far exceeded the ability of the national income to pay for it. As a result, taxes need to be increased to pay for the cost. It is also claimed that too much state support weakens individual initiative and enterprise. People should be encouraged to be as self-reliant as possible and provide for themselves and their families so as to avoid over-dependence on state welfare.

Margaret Thatcher as Conservative Party leader (1975) and then Prime Minister (1979) strongly advocated reforms in the universal state welfare provision. Thatcherism promised low taxes, less state intervention, and lower levels of public spending. Cuts in welfare spending and stricter eligibility rules for benefits were seen in the succession of Thatcher governments between 1979 and 1990. This idea is later on called "rolling back the state".

"I came to office with one deliberate intent: to change Britain from a dependent to a self-reliant society; from a give-it-to-me to a do-it-yourself nation; a get-up-and-go instead of a sit-back-and-wait Britain." (Margaret Thatcher, February 1984)

Mrs. Thatcher's reform was not as radical as either its opponents or supporters claimed. It could only roll back the state to a limited extent; however, the nature of system has changed, with great emphasis on means testing and the involvement of the private sector.

In 1997 Prime Minister, Tony Blair representing New Labor came to power with his new welfare policies. He wanted benefits recipients to do their own bit: benefit recipients such as single parents, the disabled, and older workers were encouraged to work and retrain rather than remain on the dole. He advocated the "rights and responsibilities" approach to welfare, which means people on benefit are given opportunities to get into work, but are asked for responsibility in return, and promised to build an "enabling welfare state" which helps people to help themselves.

"We must give the unemployed youth the skills to find a job; give the single mother the childcare she needs to go out and work; give the middle-aged man on a disability benefit the support and confidence to go back into the office. But with the chance, comes a responsibility on the individual — to take the chance, to make something of their lives and use their ability and potential to the full."

"Government has a responsibility to provide real opportunities for individuals to gain skills and to get into work that pays. But individuals also have a responsibility to grasp those opportunities." (Tony Blair, June 2002)

Today, in the 21st-century Britain, Beveridge's "cradle to grave" principle no longer dominates the welfare and social policies. Government and political leaders are more concerned with providing cost-effective social care through a mixture of public and private initiatives.

The New Prime Minister Gordon Brown and his government are committed to increasing benefits to poor families in work funded by a system of tax credits and reduction in child and pensioner poverty.

II. Welfare State

What is a Welfare State?

A welfare state is one in which the government undertakes to offer programs to protect citizens against economic risks and uncertainties at some, or all, stages of their lives. In essence, it refers to a set of government programs that attempts to provide economic security for the population by providing for

people when they are unemployed, ill or elderly. By such a definition, it is obvious that the government or the state plays a key role in the protection and promotion of the economic and social well-being of its citizens.

Asa Briggs — the British historian, in a classic essay on the British welfare state, identified three principles of welfare state.

They are:

- a guarantee of minimum standards, including a minimum income;
- social protection in the event of insecurity; and
- the provision of services at the best level possible.

Two key ideas can be found behind the evolvement of welfare state — collective responsibility and individual responsibility. In other words, two questions are always closely connected to welfare state: who should pay for the system and who should benefit from it. Should the welfare system be paid by the government, private sectors or individuals themselves? Should all citizens benefit from such a welfare system or only a few of them can enjoy certain benefits?

By reviewing the historical development of British welfare and social policies discussed above, you may find out that there were times in history when collective responsibility was emphasized, while individual responsibility was strengthened at other times.

Today, British welfare system is funded through National Insurance contributions and general taxation. National Insurance is a scheme under which people in work make payments towards benefits. The payments are called National Insurance contributions. A National Insurance number is assigned to each British citizen either before their 16th birthday or when they start work, which is used to keep track of the individual's National Insurance contributions and the benefits that they are paid. People need to supply their National Insurance number in a range of circumstances, for example, when they claim a benefit or tax credit or when they get a new job.

General taxation such as income tax is paid by all people in work above a certain level of income. There is also a Value Added Tax (VAT) which is included in the price of many goods and services. Besides, private initiatives are being encouraged to participate in the provision of welfare.

Components of British Welfare System

British welfare system covers welfare provision in several major areas:

- Social Security
- Health
- Housing
- Education, and
- Welfare and children (the "personal social services").

Social Security

Social security is sometimes used to refer specifically to social insurance, but more generally it is a term used for personal financial assistance, in whatever form it may take. Social security may generally refer to:

Social insurance, which means people receive benefits or services after paying contributions to an insurance scheme. These benefits typically include provision for retirement pensions, disability insurance,

survivor benefits and unemployment insurance.

Income maintenance, which refers to mainly the distribution of cash when employment is interrupted, including retirement, disability and unemployment.

Services, which are provided by administrations responsible for social security.

The social security system has become the biggest item on the budget of the national government. Between 1995 and 2001, almost one third of annual government spending is devoted to social security programs. In 2006, the government spent 151 billion pounds on social security, or nearly 2,600 pounds for every British citizen. Nearly 50 per cent of governmental spending is directed towards retirement pensions. Other items covered by the social security budget include: payments to long-term sick and disabled people, which account for almost one-quarter of spending; support to families including maternity pay and child benefits; unemployment pay and support for widows and widowers. Generally speaking, over one quarter of the British population receives social security benefits of certain kind.

Income Support

Although Income Support accounts for only a limited proportion of the expenditure on social security, it is perhaps the most important benefit, for it makes sure that many recipients receive a minimum level of income.

As a means-tested benefit, it is generally provided for people who are on a low income. Claimants of Income Support may be entitled to certain other benefits, for example, Housing Benefit, Council Tax Benefit and help with health costs. A person with savings over £16,000 cannot get Income Support and savings over £6,000 affect how much Income Support can be received.

The Income Support scheme consists of four basic elements.

• The applicable amount. It is expected to cover the normal needs of a claimant — such as food, fuel and clothing-apart form housing costs.

• Premiums. Extra weekly payments are made for people in particular situations.

• Housing costs. Mortgage relief and insurance are provided for home-owners, while Housing Benefit scheme help those with difficulty to pay for the rent.

• Deductions. Benefits may be reduced if the claimants are unemployed out of their own choices or they are on strikes.

The basic calculation of Income Support is based on the sum of these elements, minus the claimant's existing income.

Social Security for Unemployed People

Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA), colloquially known as The Dole, is a form of unemployment benefit that is paid by the government to people who are unemployed and seeking work. It is intended to cover the cost of living expenses in periods where the claimant is out of work. As a working age benefit, it is generally available only to those aged between 16 and 60. It is basically equivalent to Income Support for unemployed people.

To be eligible to make a claim for JSA, the claimant must prove that they are actively seeking work. They are expected to fill in a Jobseeker's Agreement form and attend a New Jobseeker interview. They must visit their local Job Center every two weeks, in order to sign on. Therefore, receiving Jobseeker's Allowance is also known colloquially as "signing on".

Apart from this benefit, efforts are being made to engage unemployed people in the labor market as

the main way to get out of poverty. A series of measures are adopted in order to encourage unemployed people into work, including advice, training and supervision.

Pensions

State pension is provided to prevent poverty in old age: men over the age of 65 and women over the age of 60 are entitled to the state pension, on the condition that they have paid full-rate National Insurance contributions when working. From 2010, the state pension age for women will start to rise gradually, which will ultimately reach the age of 65 as that of men by 2020.

As a contribution-based benefit, how much a pensioner may receive depends on his/her National Insurance contribution history. The full number of qualifying years, in which NI contribution was paid, is 44 for a man and 39 for a woman.(From April 2010, it will reduce to 30 years.) With full qualifying years, an individual can be paid at a flat rate of £95.25 per week between the period of 2009 and 2010. Less pension is paid for someone with fewer qualifying years.

The table shows how the state pension for singles and married couples has changed between 1998 and 2009.

Year	1998—9	1999—00	2000—1	2001—2	2002—3	2003—4	2004—5	2005—6	2006—7	2007—8	2008—9	2009—10
Single person	£64.70	£66.75	£67.50	£72.50	£75.50	£77.45	£79.60	£82.05	£84.25	£87.30	£90.70	£95.25
Married couple	£103.40	£106.70	£107.90	£115.90	£120.70	£123.80	£127.25	£131.20	£134.75	£139.60	£145.05	£152.30

Child Benefit

Child Benefit has flat rate and it is not related to age. For example, in January 2009, £20.00 per week is paid for the first child and £13.20 per week is paid for each additional child. The same amount is paid regardless of how much the earnings or savings the child's family has. Child Benefit is paid to the mother, who may have no other income. Because it is not a means-tested benefit, about 99 per cent of families with children have access to it. And more than 80 per cent of such families may also be eligible for means-tested Child Tax Credit.

There are other benefits, including sickness benefit, widow's pension and widowed mother's allowance, disablement allowance etc.

Health

Health care in general terms consists of the following three aspects:

·Hospital care. Hospitals may offer acute care, which covers the full range of medical specialties or long-stay care which has mainly been used for psychiatric care and continuing nursing care.

·Primary care. Primary care refers to basic medical treatment and non-hospital care, including medical services provided by general practitioners, or dentists, opticians and pharmacists. It also includes home nursing and occupational therapy etc.

·Public health. It deals with the preventive aspects of health such as vaccination and health education. Besides, it deals with health issues at the level of population, which could be as small as a dozen of people in a small community or as large as all the residents in a country or the world as a whole. Therefore, it is sometimes closely related to other issues other than conventional health services, such as

housing, water supplies, sewerage and food hygiene.

By comparison, it is not difficult to see that public health is the most significant issue for the health of a population, primary care is the main focus of medical care in practice, and hospital care costs the most.

NHS

The NHS (National Health Service) is seen by many people as the core of British "welfare state". Since its establishment in 1948, it has exerted great impact on British people's lives. At the turn of the 21st century, *Thames* did a survey among British citizens. In answering the question: "what is the biggest accomplishment of British government that had influenced British people's lives in the 20th century?", 46 per cent of respondents believed it is NHS that affected their lives most in the 20th century; 18 percent believed it is the establishment of "welfare state"; only 15 per cent believed it is the triumph in the Second World War.

The NHS provides residents of Britain with a health-care system in which almost all services are free of charge, especially to pregnant women, new mothers, children, the elderly, full-time students, and those on low incomes. The NHS is publicly funded: all taxpayers, employees and employers pay into the system; and services are provided on the basis of need instead of the ability to pay. Over 80 per cent of the cost of the health service in Great Britain is paid for out of general taxation. The rest comes from National Insurance contributions, charges towards the cost of certain medicines etc. With a total workforce of about 1 million people, NHS is the single biggest employer in Western Europe and it costs about 100 billion pounds from 2005 to 2006.

Principles of NHS

The right to welfare. People receive health care as a right. The National Health Service provides for every resident a full range of medical services no matter how much income they have. Each resident enjoys the right to be registered with a general practitioner and the right to be medically examined. Also known as a family doctor, a G.P. usually has a list of people registered with him. A G.P. must visit a patient on the list that makes a request, or the patient would go to visit his G.P. at the appointed time.

A G.P. is responsible for giving treatment, prescribing medicine and sometimes making arrangement for the patient to go to hospital or to be seen at home by a specialist. All of these medical services are provided free, except for a small charge for the cost of medicine and general dental treatment.

G.P.s are self-employed and have contracts with the NHS. They are salaried based on the number of individuals who register with them as patients. About four-fifth of G.P.s in Britain work in partnerships or group practices, often as members of primary health-care teams. About a quarter of G.P.s in Britain work in health centers, where medical and nursing services are provided.

Comprehensiveness. The NHS is intended to offer protection for all citizens in the UK.

Health services are provided mainly by a general practitioner for those who registered with him or her. Therefore, for those who can't register with a G.P. such as the homeless, they can hardly gain access to medical care. Without an address, it is generally impossible for them to register with a G.P.

In reality, the NHS service has great difficulty achieving its comprehensiveness. Regular checkups for everyone can hardly be realized and there are long waiting lists as well. This is mainly due to the ever-increasing medical costs.

A free service at the point of delivery. No one is liable to be charged by the NHS for treatment in an accident, emergency or for an infectious disease. A full range of publicly provided services are designed to

help the individual stay healthy.

Services Provided by the NHS

The NHS provides primary care through GPs, dentists, opticians and pharmacists as well as hospital care through district general hospitals and specialists. The NHS since its birth has always put enormous emphasis on the hospital services, especially services provided by high-status university hospitals. About 70 per cent of the expenditure on the NHS goes on hospitals. General practice, though dealing with the vast majority of reported illness — over 95 per cent of all, accounts for no more than 10 per cent of the total spending.

Despite the huge amount of spending on hospital services, complains about the NHS tend to focus on the problems of hospitals: poor standards, bureaucracy, long time it takes for a patient to see a doctor, the waiting time in accident and emergency departments, etc. Most controversial of all have been the waiting lists for patients seeking operations: until recently, it could take up to 18 months for someone to receive non-urgent surgery, 9-12 months to receive hip- or knee-replacement surgery, and even several months for cancer patients to start receiving treatment.

The problem of being on a "waiting-list" has made many Britons who can afford it take out private health insurance and attend private clinics. About 10 per cent of the population is covered by private health insurance. Private health-care was encouraged by the government during the 1980s and 1990s, in order to ease the pressure of the NHS and to provide patients with more choices. There have been a number of new hospitals of small scale built to provide exclusive services for private patients.

In recent years, the British government has made great efforts to address the problems that the NHS has been confronted with through reforms. In order to improve its overall standards and service quality, spending on NHS increased dramatically between 1999 to 2004, by an annual rate of 6.4 per cent. In addition, recruitment drives for overseas doctors and nurses were launched so as to solve the problem of staff shortage.

A 10-year programme for the reform of the NHS — the NHS Plan was announced in the year of 2000 by the Labour government, which was determined to reshape the NHS to match patient need and "recreate a health service envied by the world". It represented the biggest reform of the NHS since its establishment in 1948. The NHS Plan included proposals to cut waiting times in hospital, for surgery and for G.P. appointment, to expand hospital's capacity to take in more patients, to recruit more doctors, nurses and other health professionals and provide them with better training, to provide a system of rewards for the best-performing hospitals and NHS services, to encourage more students to enroll in medical schools etc.

Housing

Different types of housing scatter across the country. Residents in large cities often live in apartments, which are also called flats. Town dwellers are often found to live in terraced houses — houses joined together in long rows. Generally speaking, the majority of British households — about 82 per cent live in houses rather than flats, which is much higher than the percentages in France and Italy — 60 per cent and 35 per cent respectively.

The main types of houses in the UK are:

Detached houses

Semi-detached houses

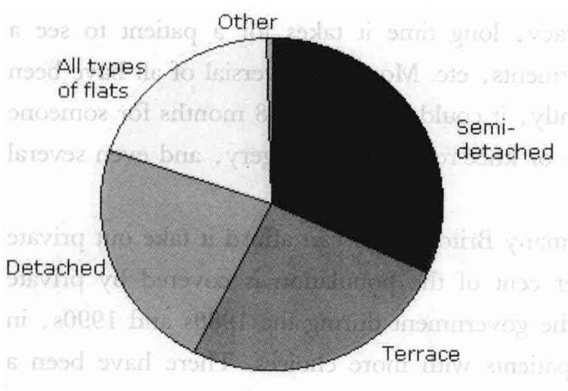
Terraced houses

Flats

According to Census 2001, the most popular type of home in England is semi-detached houses (which accounts for more than 27 per cent of all homes), followed by detached houses and terraced houses.

According to different types of tenure, housing in Britain falls into several categories: social housing (including local authority housing, housing provided by housing associations and registered social landlords), owner occupation, and private rented housing.

Type of accommodation, 2001, England, percentages



Social housing refers to residential properties available for people to rent at low prices and on a secure basis. It is owned and managed by local authorities (councils), housing associations or registered social landlords. It is intended to provide accommodation affordable to people on low incomes. The state subsidizes rents in the social housing sector so as to keep them at a low level. Currently, the social housing sector is under a strict system of rent control to ensure that rents are kept affordable. In addition, different from the private rental sector, social housing is allocated according to need.

Social housing began its development during the 19th century when industrial revolution made people leave the farm land and get to work in cities, which resulted in overcrowded urban areas and poor living conditions. Consequently, employers began to build housing estates for their workers and housing associations also emerged as charitable enterprises building social housing estates. Since the 1920s, councils were allowed to build rental estates as well.

Local authority housing is also known as council housing. As the name suggests, council houses were built, owned and managed by local authorities; they are mainly provided by local governments at a rather low renting price for people on the minimum wage. Between the 1950s and 1960s, slums were cleared to a large extent and large areas of council houses were built instead. The so-called "council estates" were built on the suburbs of towns and cities, though facilities were poor; high rise tower blocks were built in urban areas to house people who used to live in slums.

In 1979 when the Conservative government introduced the "Right to Buy" legislation, council tenants were allowed to buy the property they rented at a much reduced price, which enabled many to invest in their own property. Meanwhile, those who bought council houses naturally became responsible for maintenance of the property. This policy led to much disagreement: the government's responsibility of housing provision is lessened; fewer council houses would be available for rent; rents are likely to rise and there would be longer waiting lists for council houses.

Housing associations are independent, non-profit making organizations that provide low-cost housing for rent and for sale. They are now the UK's major providers of new homes. A wide range of housing are provided by housing associations, including that provided for people with special needs — the disabled,

the elderly, the homeless, or the young etc.

Owner occupation is also called home ownership. Owner occupier refers to those who live on the property that they own or they are in the process of buying. Owing to the government's "Right to Buy" policy which encouraged council tenants to buy the council houses they used to rent, owner occupation increased the most during the 1980s. In England alone, more than 1.75 million council tenants bought their homes.

During the half century between 1959 and 2009, house prices in the UK have risen by 2.7 per cent annually, which is above the 2 per cent annual increase in real earnings over the same period. In 2009, the average wage per year in Britain is £24,000, while the average house price in Britain is £224,064.

Average house price: £224,064

House type	Average price
Detached	£344,989
Semi-detached	£196,506
Terrace	£177,633
Flat	£199,669

Currently, the affordability of houses has become a major problem, for many people can not afford to buy their own home. As a result, home ownership is still out of reach for thousands of households.

Given the ever-increasing house prices, only a small number of households in the UK today can afford to buy their home outright. Therefore, most people buy their home through taking out a mortgage loan secured against their assets. Out of the total number of 14.6 million households who own their home in England, more than half of them have an outstanding mortgage to pay for on a monthly basis.

Private rented housing is owned, managed and let out by private landlords that could either be an individual or a company. Unlike the social housing sector, most private rental properties are let out on a commercial basis, with no allowance for tenants. People living in the private rented sector often complain about its expensive rents and deposits, disrepair and damp or terrible living conditions etc. However, with high house prices and long waiting lists for council houses, millions depend on the private rented sector to meet their housing needs. It is therefore necessary for the private sector to reform so as to offer decent and secure housing provision for people in need.

Starting from the 20th century, the ratio of different types of tenure has undergone some major changes. Private rented housing has shrank dramatically, decreasing from 90 per cent to no more than 10 per cent of the stock; council housing accounted for no more than one quarter; owner occupation has grown from 10 per cent to 67 per cent.

Personal Social Services

Personal social services cover both social work and social care, which incorporate services that are out of the scope of health services. In Britain, it includes services that assist mentally-ill people, elderly people, offenders, children who are abused, neglected or without support, physically sick and disabled people, people with learning disabilities.

Those who deliver such services are called social workers. They often work in a range of settings

within the framework of relevant legislation and procedures, helping individuals, families and groups within the community. Their working environment include people's home, schools, hospitals and the premises of other public sector and voluntary organizations. Social workers receive professional training and have various work-related skills such as assessment, interviewing, recording, counseling, negotiation and problem solving etc. Their typical tasks include undertaking and writing up assessments (often with medical staff), which meet specified standards and timescales; conducting interviews with individuals and their families to assess and review their situation; offering information and counseling support to people in need and their families; organizing and managing packages of support to help individuals lead the fullest lives possible; providing recommendations and suggestions to assist people making decisions under particular circumstances; contacting and making referrals to other agencies; and participating in multidisciplinary teams and meetings, for example child protection, mental health etc.

Glossary

ambiguous 模棱两可的,含混不清的
well-being 健康,安乐,康乐
derive 起源于,来自
residual 剩余的,残留的
solidarity 团结,相互支持
exclude 不包括
institutional 机构的,制度的
handmaiden 基础,根基
capacity 能力
regulator 调节器
stimulate 促进,激发,激励
extensive 广阔的,大量的
corporatist 统合主义的
Scandinavia 斯堪的那维亚半岛
relief 救济,救援物品,救济金
enact 通过(法律)
overseer 监督者,监督机构
parish 教区
pauper 穷人,贫民,乞丐
indigent 十分贫穷的
allowance 津贴,补贴,补助
enactment 通过,颁布,法律,法规
amendment 修改,修订,修正案
standardize 使标准化
degrading 有辱人格的,贬低的
alternative 可供选择的事物
humanitarian 人道主义的,慈善的
cornerstone 基石,基础
follow suit 效仿
maternity 母亲身份,孕妇
contribution (给雇主或政府用作医疗保险,养老金等津贴的)定期缴款
implement 贯彻,执行,实施
philanthropic 慈善的
intervention 干涉,干预
pension 养老金,退休金
institute 建立,制定(体系,政策等)
diagnosis 诊断
ophthalmic 眼科的,与眼睛有关的
abolish 废除,废止
consensus 一致的意见,共识
initiative 主动性,积极性,自发性
enterprise 事业心,进取心,创业精神
over-dependence 过度依赖
eligibility 合格,具备条件
succession 继任
deliberate 有意的,故意的
intent 意图,意向,目的
means test (对申请补助者)收入调查,经济情况调查
recipient 接受者

dole 失业救济金
cost-effective 有最佳利润的，有成本效益的，划算的
tax credit 税务减免，税收抵免
evolvement 发展，演变
keep track of 记录
maintenance 生活费，抚养费
recipient 受方，接受者
claimant 领取救济金者
entitle 使享有权利
premium 保险费
mortgage 按揭，按揭贷款
deduction 扣除，减去
equivalent 相等的，相同的
sign on 办理失业登记
supervision 监督，管理，指导，主管
flat-rate 统一价格，统一收费率
acute 严重的，急性的
psychiatric 精神病，精神病学的
general practitioner 全科医生，普通医师
optician 验光师
pharmacist 药剂师
preventive 预防性的
vaccination 接种疫苗
sewerage 排水系统，污水处理
hygiene 卫生
bureaucracy 官僚主义，官僚作风，官僚体制
exclusive 专用的，专有的，独有的
tenure （不动产）占有（权）；保有（权）；
subsidize 资助，补助
slum 贫民窟
tenant 房客，租户
ownership 所有权，产权
provision 提供，供给，给养，供应品
outright 完全彻底地
asset 资产，财产
deposit 订金，押金
disrepair 失修，破败，破损
counseling 咨询，辅导
timescales 一段时间，期限
multidisciplinary 含多种科目的，涉及多学科的

Cultural Notes

1. **Deserving and Undeserving Poor** deserving poor were very old, sick or severely disabled, while undeserving poor were those capable of working. The Elizabethan Poor Laws made a difference between the two types of the poor people.
2. **Charitable Organization** is one type of non-profit organization. It may refer to a public charity (also called charitable foundation, public foundation or just foundation) or a private foundation. It focuses on activities of general philanthropic nature, such as charitable, educational, religious or other activities serving the public interest.
3. **Voluntary Organization (also called a voluntary association)** is a group of individuals who voluntarily enter into an agreement to form an organization in order to accomplish a purpose.
4. **Chancellor Otto von Bismarck** was born on April 1, 1815 and died on July 30, 1898. He was a German politician in the late 19th century and played a dominant role in world affairs. As Prime Minister of Prussia between 1862 and 1890, he supervised the unification of Germany. He became the first Chancellor of German Empire in 1871 and ran the empire until it was dismissed in 1890. His powerful rule and pragmatic dipolmatic policies won him the nickname "The Iron Chancellor".
5. **Sir William Beveridge** was born on March 5, 1879, Rangpur, India and died on March 16, 1963, Oxford, England. He was the son of a British civil servant in India and received education at Balliol College, Oxford. He is famous for his *Social Insurance and Allied Services* (1942), which is also known as

the Beveridge Report. Other major works include *Unemployment: A Problem of Industry* (1909) and *Full Employment in a Free Society* (1944). His most remarkable achievement was that he helped the British government work out the blueprints of the new British welfare state during World War II.

6. **Jobcentre Plus** is a government agency for working-age people in Great Britain. The Employment Service that ran Jobcentres merged with the Benefits Agency that ran social security offices and was renamed as Jobcentre Plus on April 1, 2002. Jobcentre Plus advertises job vacancies for employers by using a computer system called LMS (Labour Market System) which can be accessed by customers through Jobpoints (touch-screen computer terminals) and via the Jobcentre Plus website and the telephone service Jobseeker Direct (0845 60 60 234). It also administers claims for benefits such as Jobseeker's Allowance, Incapacity Benefit, Employment and Support Allowance and Income Support.
7. **General practitioner** (**G.P.**) is a medical practitioner who provides primary care and specializes in nothing and sees everything. A general practitioner treats acute and chronic illnesses and provides preventive care and health education for all ages and both sexes. They have particular skills in treating people with different health issues.
8. **Housing associations** are independent non-profit organizations that provide affordable "social housing" for people in housing need. They provide renting houses for people in the UK, and also run shared ownership schemes to assist people who can't afford to buy their own homes outright. They also design projects helping people with special needs, for instance, people with mental illness or learning disabilities, people with drug or alcohol problems, the formerly homeless, young people, ex-offenders and women fleeing domestic violence etc.

Questions for Discussion

1. What is welfare? What're the common welfare models around the world?
2. How did British welfare policies change in history?
3. How do you understand the term "welfare state", as proposed by the Beveridge Report of 1942?
4. What're the major components of British welfare state and their different functions?
5. What're the main benefits available in the UK system of social security?
6. What are the basic principles of the National Health Service? And how is the system funded? What are the problems that the system has been faced with?
7. How many types of housing by tenure could be found in the UK?
8. What are the major responsibilities of social workers?

Supplementary Reading

Tony Blair's speech on welfare reform

The five pillars of this government when we came into office were:

· A stable and dynamic economy, ending the years of boom and bust and reaching out to the new markets that globalization and technology are creating;

· A welfare state based on rights and responsibility where we gave opportunity to people on benefit to get into work; but demanded responsibility in return; where we came down hard on crime; but offered ways out to those committing crime;

· Modern public services through a combination of investment and reform;

· A modern constitution; and

· Britain ending its years of isolation in Europe and playing a leading role there and elsewhere in the world events that inevitably affect us as a nation.

In each area, our policies differed radically from the previous policies of Labour and Conservative Governments.

In welfare, for too long, the right had let social division and chronic unemployment grow; the left argued for rights but were weak on responsibilities. We believe passionately in giving people the chance to get off benefit and into work. We have done it for $1\frac{1}{4}$ million.

But there are hundreds of thousands more who could work, given the chance. It's right for them, for the country, for society. But with the chance, comes a responsibility on the individual — to take the chance, to make something of their lives and use their ability and potential to the full.

In my speech on welfare reform at Toynbee Hall three years ago I set out the challenge.

We must give the unemployed youth the skills to find a job; give the single mother the childcare she needs to go out and work; give the middle-aged man on a disability benefit the support and confidence to go back into the office.

And we must not only lift people out of poverty. We must transform their horizons, aspirations and hopes as well — through helping people get the skills they need for better jobs, and through giving them chance to save and build up a nest egg.

Only in this way will we drive up social mobility, the great force for equality in dynamic market economies.

To do all that, ours has to be an enabling welfare state — one which helps people to help themselves.

That is the key to Job Centre Plus. It embodies on the one hand the enabling welfare state, spreading opportunity — and on the other our reform of public services, as a new responsive service focused on the jobless.

But for it to work, it has to be founded on mutual responsibility.

Government has a responsibility to provide real opportunities for individuals to gain skills and to get into work that pays. But individuals also have a responsibility to grasp those opportunities.

We are now seeing the beginnings of a sea-change in how people view our welfare state. There is growing public support for a welfare state that tackles poverty at its source; that gets people into work; that offers people hope — in exchange for a commitment to help themselves.

Progress so far

We inherited a nation in which the economy swung between boom and bust, with record levels of social security spending alongside high unemployment and desperate child poverty.

I don't doubt the challenges ahead. But we have started to make real inroads:

· We have a stable economy. Unemployment is at its lowest levels since the 1970s, long-term youth unemployment is virtually eradicated, and half of lone parents are in work — for the first time in 20

years.

· By reducing unemployment we are saving almost £4bn a year — cutting the bills of social and economic failure and allowing us to spend more where it will do most good.

· Leaving aside the areas such as tax credits, child benefit or extra money for pensioners where we are deliberately spending more for good causes, welfare bills in Britain have been falling in real terms and the past five years.

· We are rewarding work through the National Minimum Wage and the Working Families Tax Credit, which helps almost 1.3m families.

· We have changed the culture of the welfare state — it is now universally accepted that it is right to expect unemployed people to look for work and take jobs, that is right for lone parents and others to come in for work-focused interviews.

· We have turned the tide on child poverty — half a million children lifted out of relative poverty by 2000/1 — on line for our target by 2004.

· We have improved the skills of hundreds of thousands of adults. Over 120,000 have gained Adult Basic Skills achievements since April 2001 and nearly 700,000 learners have had an extra 1m learning opportunities.

· We have cut the numbers of fraudulent claims on Income Support and JSA by 18%.

These are solid foundations on which we can and must build further welfare reforms — to move us closer to our historic goals of full employment and the eradication of child poverty.

Welfare Strategy

Today my focus is on people of working age. I want to outline four parts of our welfare strategy.

· A new public service fit for a dynamic labour market — responsive to employers and potential employees alike.

· More active strategies to help lone parents and sick and disabled people make the break-through into the world of work.

· A new programme to get Jobcentre Plus clients into higher-skilled, better-paid jobs.

· And policies to encourage saving for low earners and for the next generation.

A new public service for a dynamic labour market — Job Centre Plus First, Jobcentre Plus.

This Government's defining priority has been — and defining legacy will be — the reform of public services. Our hospitals and schools were chronically under-funded and unreformed for decades. But services for the jobless were hit even harder.

The state of most benefit offices was testament to the previous Government's approach — take your money and get out of our sight. In their view claimants were there because it was their fault — so it didn't matter if they had to wait in queues for hours on end, in tatty offices, having to shout their private business at staff through screens.

How inspiring to be able to contrast that old picture with our new Jobcentre Plus offices. Job Centre Plus exemplifies both an active welfare state and our vision for public services.

An active welfare state which brings together benefit offices and job centres so that instead of simply dishing out cash, personal advisers provide everybody coming through the door with advice and support to help them into work or at least get them closer to the labour market.

This is a welfare state which reflects all our responsibilities: the responsibility we have to engage

actively with the jobless to provide them with opportunities; their responsibility to engage actively with us and take those opportunities.

Job Centre Plus embodies key principles of public service reform.

First, customer focus.

Instead of the old benefit mentality, individuals are treated as customers and potential employees — given high quality advice and support by professional advisers in a business-like environment. But employers are our customers too. Jobcentre Plus advisers have to understand not only claimants' work skills but also the requirements of particular employers and jobs. And that is a massive culture change.

Second, empowering front-line staff. Simply handing benefits out was demoralising and unsatisfying for staff as well as claimants. Talking face-to-face with clients about their prospects for work, personal advisers will make a real difference.

And we're helping them to do that by giving them more freedom to decide what their client needs. Take the new fund for personal advisors to pay for a bus pass, new suit, tools — things that make the difference between getting and not getting a job. I want to build on that flexibility — allowing greater autonomy for local managers to experiment to meet their targets. We need to be creative about how to reach the people who don't come to us.

And third, ensuring that Jobcentre Plus embodies the best of the public and private sector — because no one has a monopoly on best practice.

The best Employment Zones — run by Working Links, a PPP, or by the private sector — are achieving impressive job outcomes and are popular with claimants. And we're picking up some valuable lessons:

- begin with a can-do mentality which sees claimants as potential employees;
- ask them why they think it is that they are not working — staggeringly, this is often the first time someone long-term unemployed has been asked that;
- give your front-line staff greater autonomy — and with it responsibility and flexibility;
- and combine strong incentive payments for jobs with real leadership, performance pay and team working.

As we take Jobcentre Plus forward, we'll be looking carefully at how to transfer these ways of working into our own practices. Subject to evaluation, we will extend and improve the employment zone approach to help other client groups, such as lone parents.

Jobcentre Plus is already up and running in 56 offices and I am able to confirm today that we intend to roll out the new, one-stop service across the entire country — 225 offices will be rolled out by spring of next year. Today we are announcing 50 locations where we aim to have Jobcentre Plus offices open by next March, in places such as Conventry, Manchester and Taunton. This is a major programme of public service investment which will transform the culture of our welfare system and the opportunities it opens up for people.

More active strategies to help lone parents and sick and disabled people into work

But our vision for welfare reform stretches beyond the unemployed. It also encompasses those who used to be left to fend for themselves — written off because they were judged too difficult or too expensive to work with — lone parents, people with health problems, disabled people.

The challenge for our second term is to reach those people with particular barriers to work. We must

do this not just because it is right — but because we simply cannot afford to continue wasting the talents of so many of our citizens.

Lone Parents

There are over 1.6m lone parents with 2.8m children in Britain — and over half of those children are growing up at risk of poverty. Those children's best chance of a better future is for their parents to find routes into work. Half of all lone parents are already working — and the majority of those who aren't say that they would like to in the short or medium term.

But they face very real barriers — the shortage of childcare, the need for new skills, perhaps a lack of confidence from being out of the job market, and the need to find a job which fits in with their caring responsibilities.

So we're investing in the support they need.

· £146m for the New Deal for Lone Parents — 1300 Personal Advisers, who have given 315,000 lone parents help and advice; almost half have found work.

· From 2003 a guaranteed minimum income of £179 a week for a lone parent working 16 hours a week.

· Over £300m invested in childcare since 1997, creating places for more than 900,000 children.

That investment is our side of the bargain — helping lone parents to help themselves. In return, we expect them to come and discuss with personal advisers how they can get back to work. Almost a quarter of lone parents have no qualifications. And this is in a world which puts a premium on skills. We want more lone parents to have the chance to be screened for basic skills needs. Where appropriate, they will be offered basic skills courses to help them get back on the ladder to work.

There will always be lone parents who face particular difficulties such as those caring for disabled children or those with young children — who may not be able to work. That's why we are protecting those children from poverty through the extra investment in child benefit, tax credits and Sure Start. The strategy is already working — more lone parents in jobs and lone parent poverty down.

Sick and disabled people

Those with health problems or a disability of some kind also face barriers to work. But they have the abilities and talents that we need. And 1 million say that they would like to work.

Of course there will always be some people who may never realistically be able to work — and they must have security and inclusion. That is why we have introduced extra help through the enhanced disability premium, improvements in carers benefits, more investment in social services and new civil rights for disabled people. Jobcentre Plus will help this group too — because it is also about making it easier for people to get the benefit that they are entitled to.

But many people with a health problem or disability could and do want to work — yet don't. It is a scandal that 2.7m people on incapacity and disability benefits are written off, left to drift into long-term incapacity and unemployment. Five months into their claim for incapacity benefit, over 90% of people expect to return to work. But in practice, 44% will still be on IB six months later; and of those fewer than one in five will be working five years after that. Something is wrong — the current system is working against people's expectations.

We are investing:

· £100m on the New Deal for Disabled People;

· £120m so far on the Disabled Person's Tax Credit, to help make work pay;

· and introduced the Disability Discrimination Act and the Disability Rights Commission to tackle discrimination.

And in return for that investment we expect those on Incapacity Benefits, like lone parents, to come in and discuss their work prospects with a Personal Adviser — when they first become sick or disabled and every 3 years for a review.

The next steps we are now considering will involve doing more —

· by working with employers and health professionals to catch people early and to prevent ill health becoming chronic;

· to ensure that tailored rehabilitation and employment programmes are available to help IB claimants get back to work;

· to promote IB claimants to employers as potential employees and to tackle discrimination; and

· more to ensure that work pays.

New Opportunities for Skilled Jobs

Our priority has always been getting the jobless into work. But we want everyone to have the chance to develop their talents and aspirations. We want to make social mobility a reality for all.

That is why we have developed Ambition — specific programmes to enable people to train for — and get — higher-skilled, better paid jobs.

Our Ambition programmes will begin running this summer in the construction, retail and IT sectors and I am delighted to announce today a further programme, Ambition: Energy.

The leading Chief Executives of the energy sector are coming together to take Ambition to their sector. Over the next three years this programme aims to fill 4,500 jobs across occupations in the fields of Gas and Engineering Construction — with water and renewables to follow.

The pilots show just what a difference Ambition can make. For example, Jan Muniza, a single mother with a six year-old daughter, had not worked for 10 years. She completed an NVQ2 in gas installation and maintenance as part of a project managed by the Gas and Water Industry National Training Organisation. Now she has a job with British Gas Home Services.

This is an excellent example of how we can — and must — work in partnership with employers to our mutual benefit. Employers gain staff where there are skills shortages. And the new employees gain a real chance to fulfil their ambition and get a better job.

I pay tribute to everyone who has been involved in the development of this programme and wish you — and all its participants — every success.

I would simply urge that, as you look for potential participants, you cast your net wide, keeping an open mind to the talents and potential of others as well as the unemployed — lone parents, the sick and disabled, and the over 50s. Because successful modern workplaces recognise that embracing diversity and adopting family friendly work practices enables employers to get the best person for the job and brings important business benefits.

Create a nation of savers and asset-holders

But if we are serious about transforming the welfare state, our strategy has to be about more than helping people into work and relieving poverty. To enable people to be independent and make their own choices, they need the back-up of having some savings in the bank or a nest-egg.

Money put aside changes your horizons. It makes you plan, brings responsibility, offers protection and opportunity. And I want to ensure that those on lower incomes - and the next generation - can share

those advantages.

We want people to save more for their retirement so that they have a decent income to live on — Stakeholder Pensions and the Pension Credit will reward those who have managed save as they approach retirement.

This summer the first pilots of the Saving Gateway begin. We are working with community organisations to enable people on low incomes to save — rewarding their savings with government money — at the same time as getting financial education.

And the Child Trust Fund will break new ground — offering a stake in society to the next generation. Imagine embarking on life at 18 without skills, with a poor education, with little confidence, no work experience and no financial backing from your family.

The Child Trust Fund will help change that prospect by encouraging parents, grandparents and others to give those young people a spring-board for their future. And it too is founded on mutual responsibility — the government provides the endowment for each baby, and then parents and the wider family contribute.

Conclusion

All of our reforms have the same underlying principles — opportunity, fairness and mutual responsibility. We want to give people the chance to fulfil their potential. We want to raise people's expectations and their self-belief, by giving them the tools to help themselves.

Our strategy is working. We have a stable economy and greater social justice. Fewer people are on benefits — enabling us to spend more on children, pensioners and the severely disabled — and to reward work. And the welfare state is becoming popular again.

These are the principles on which Job Centre Plus is founded. On which our approach to poverty and opportunity is founded. On which our approach to assets and savings is founded. And I believe that will ensure the success of the second stage of our reform of the welfare state.

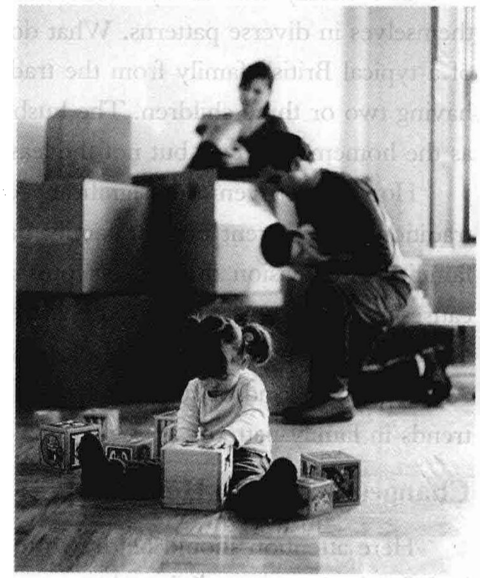
Further Reading

1. Rodney, Lowe *The Welfare State in Britain since 1945*, 3rd edition. Palgrave Macmillan, February 2005.
2. Margaret Jones and Rodney Lowe (ed) From Beveridge to Blair: *The First Fifty Years of Britain's Welfare State 1948-98*. Manchester University Press, January 2003.
3. John Hills (ed) *The State of Welfare: The Welfare State in Britain Since 1974*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1990.

Useful Websites

1. http://www.la-articles.org.uk/ws.htm
2. http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/british/modern/field_01.shtml
3. http://www2.rgu.ac.uk/publicpolicy/introduction/uk.htm

Chapter 9 British Families



导 读
Introduction

家庭是英国社会重要的奠基石。一对夫妇,两三个孩子,丈夫挣钱养家,妻子照料家务,全家开心幸福——这就是传统英国家庭的写照;而当代英国家庭的形式却发生了重要变化,表现出多种多样的形式:如单亲家庭(尤其是单亲母亲带着孩子的家庭),(无婚姻关系的)同居男女等等。居住形式也随之而变,几个家庭聚集居住的情况越来越少,越来越多的出现一人独居。一系列因素诸如家庭规模越来越小,女性推迟生育,当代英国人对婚姻的不同态度以及高居不下的离婚率是导致这些变化的主要原因。然而任凭时代变迁,社会变化,婚姻关系对英国人来说始终是最重要的人际关系。在英国虽然 16 岁就可以结婚,今天大多数的年轻人纷纷选择晚婚,男女结婚的平均年龄都在 30 岁左右。从订婚到结婚,英国人大都沿袭着传统的风俗习惯;与此同时,同居,离婚等"新鲜事物"也变得越来越司空见惯。在现代英国家庭中,据调查,女性在工作之余,仍然承担着大部分的家庭杂务;在这个因特网无处不在的数字时代,家长与孩子之间依然存在着严重的"代沟";虽然寿命大大延长了,但英国老年人的晚年生活却不一定都健康快乐。本章主要介绍英国家庭,婚姻和主要家庭关系。

Ⅰ. The Family

"We were born into a family, mature in a family, form new families, and leave them at our death. Family life is a universal human experience."—Galvin and Brommel

"Other things may change us, but we start and end with the family."—Anthony Brandt

As the basic component of society, the family holds special importance in different cultures across the world. It reflects the ethical values of a society, its cultural characteristics as well as the unique features of a particular nation. Being one of the oldest and the most fundamental human institutions, the family also carries with it different implications.

Galvin and Brommel have observed that the family is an experience that helps shape the way in which one sees and interacts with the world. In Bible, the family is given deeper religious meanings: God created both man and woman in his image, commanding them to "be fruitful and multiply"; thus the family is a god given institution built into the very nature of the universe. Some others believe that the

family is an arbitrary cultural structure; in specific, it is a group of people held together by bonds of love and affection. According to this view, the family changes as society changes, thus showing a variety of family forms: a man and a woman, married and unmarried, with or without children, gay and lesbian couples, singles, with and without children, and even larger groups of individuals in various communal living arrangements. What matters is not the actual family structure, but the quality of the relationships.

Traditional British Family

The family has always been the cornerstone of British society; families in Britain today show themselves in diverse patterns. What does a traditional British family look like? Here's the popular image of a typical British family from the traditional view. It comprises a married couple in their first marriage, having two or three children. The husband works full-time as the bread-winner, and the wife keeps house as the homemaker. Last but not the least, everyone in the family is happy.

However, given the significant changes in contemporary British families, some argue that the traditional two-parent nuclear family has long become a relic of the past. Only perhaps the portrayal of families in television dramas, sitcoms and commercials keeps the spirit of the nuclear family alive. The causes may be attributed to the increased demands from the workplace, large scale of technological advancement, and the pursuit of personal achievement at the cost of interpersonal needs and values. Although such kind of claims may be a bit exaggerating, it is not groundless, for there are noticeable new trends in family patterns.

Changes in British Households

Here attention should be drawn to the different meaning of "household" from "family". A household is defined as a person living alone or a group of people living together as a unit. Therefore, a household may consist of one, two or even more families living together. For instance, grandparents, mother and daughter living together would be one household but two families. Sometimes people who are not related may also live together and make up a household, such as student households, etc.

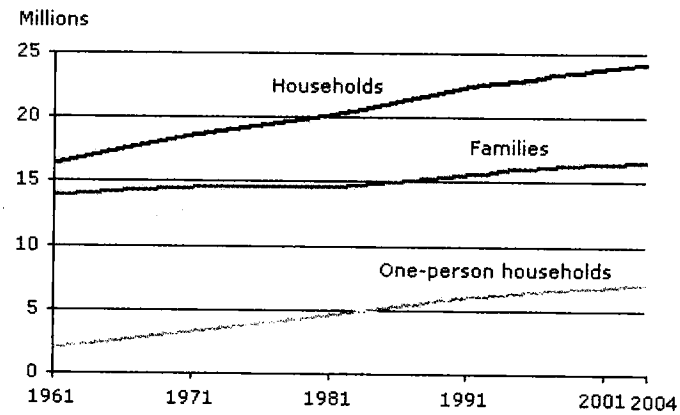
The average household size is on the decline. According to the data released by the National Office of Statistics, between 1971 and 2001 there was a decline in the average size of household in Great Britain, from 2.9 persons to 2.4. The Continuous Household Survey (Northern Ireland) shows that the average household size in Northern Ireland is larger than GB, at 2.8 in 1996 and at 2.6 between 2001 and 2002. In 2000/01, Northern Ireland still had 14 per cent of households containing 5+ people. However, trends towards smaller households in Northern Ireland are similar to those in GB. The shrinking size of household is mainly due to changes in marital status: compared with the past, people today marry much later and have more divorces.

Percentage of total households by size in Great Britain

	1971	1981	1991	2001	2003
One person	18	22	27	29	29
Two people	32	32	34	35	35
Three people	19	17	16	15	15
Four people	17	18	16	14	14
Five people	8	7	5	5	5
Six or more people	6	4	2	2	2
Average household size (no. of people)	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.4

What's more, there has been a considerable rise in the number of one person household. This is partly caused by the decrease of the traditional households comprising a couple with dependent children, a decline in multi-family households (families sharing a household with at least one other family) as well as the increase in the number of elderly people living alone and the rising number of young people who choose to live on their own. According to the estimates, 36% of all households will consist of a single person by 2016.

Households and Families, GB



Statistics in relation to the changing numbers of households and families over the period between 1961 and 2004 in Great Britain and the UK will be discussed as follows.

The graph above shows that in 2004 there were 7.0 million people living alone in Great Britain, nearly four times as many as in 1961. In addition, there were 2.6 million more families in 2004 than in 1961, but there were 7.8 million more households. The growing trend in people living alone accounted for much of the increase in the number of households, which also resulted in the decline of the average household size over the same period. In spite of the growth in the number of one-person households, most people in Great Britain still live in a family household. In 2004, eight out of ten people lived in a family household, compared with nine out of ten in 1961.

Households and people: by household type, 2004, UK

	Households (percentage)	People (percentage)
Family households		
One-family household	67	82
Multi-family household	1	2
Non-family households		
One-person household	29	12
Multi-person household	3	4
All household types	100	100

Among all the 24.7 million households in the UK in 2004, more than two thirds were family households. One-family household occupied the largest proportion of all household types. In 2004, just 1 per cent (0.2 million) of households in the UK were families sharing with at least one other family. This is down from 3 per cent in Great Britain in 1961. The decline can be attributed to an increase in the provision of public and private housing in the 1970s and 1980s. What's more, lone-parent families (a lone parent living with dependent children), who historically were more likely than other families to live in multi-family households, increasingly became one-family households throughout this period.

The next most common type of household was one-person households, which by definition is not a

family. In 2004, 29 per cent of households were people living alone. A small proportion of households consisted of two or more people who either were not related or were related but did not form a family. These multi-person households accounted for 3 per cent of households in the UK in 2004 compared with 5 per cent of households in Great Britain in 1961.

Changes in British Families

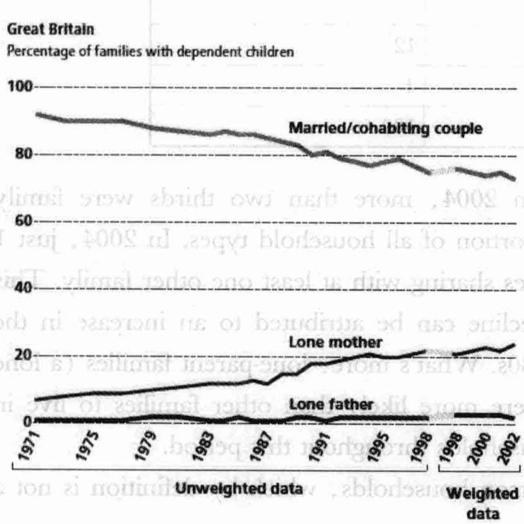
In contrast to the definition of a household, a family refers to a married or cohabiting couple with or without child(ren), or a lone-parent with child(ren). The emerging trends in British families include the decline in the proportion of families headed by a married or cohabiting couple and a corresponding increase in the proportion headed by a lone parent.

The proportion of a married or cohabiting couple and their dependent children in Great Britain has declined steadily. In 1971, 92% of families were of this type, and the rate dropped to 73% in 2002. During this period, there has been a large increase in the proportion of lone-parent families, from less than one in ten in 1971 (8%) to the current level of over one in four (27%).

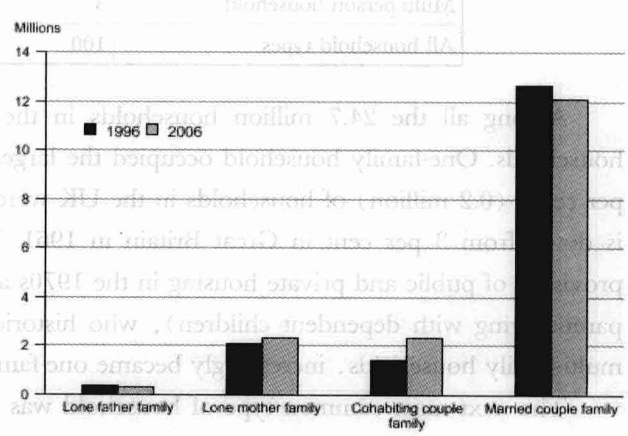
This increase is explained by the substantial rise in lone mothers. In 1971 they headed 7% of families with dependent children, but accounted for 24% of these families in 2002. The proportion of lone fathers has ranged between 1% and 3% since 1971.

The percentage of families headed by mothers who have never married (i.e. single) has risen from 1% in 1971 to 12% in 2002 Great Britain. The percentage of families headed by mothers who were previously married, and are now divorced, widowed or separated, has risen from 6% to 12% during the same period.

Another trend over the last decade is the rapid growth of cohabiting couple family in the UK. The proportion of married couple families has decreased over the last ten years, (from 76 per cent in 1996 to 71 per cent of all families in 2006). Over the same period the proportion of cohabiting couple families increased to 14 per cent from 9 per cent. And cohabiting couple families were generally smaller than married couple families. In 2006, the average number of dependent children in cohabiting couple families was 1.6, compared with an average 1.8 dependent children in married couple families.



All families: by family type, 1996 and 2006, United Kingdom



Causes for Changes

There are several explanations for the changing scenario in British families and households. Firstly, there has been a trend towards smaller families. Today there is less social pressure to have children than in the past when there were higher mortality rates and children were much needed to work the land for the family. In fact, having a child today has become an expensive thing. To feed, clothe, house, educate and take care of the health of a child is now a major financial commitment.

Secondly, women are delaying having children. Many choose to further their education, and many prefer to concentrate on their career thus put off having a baby. The mean age at which British women have their first child has risen from 26.2 years in 1972 to 29.1 today. Meanwhile, the number of women who choose not to have children has also increased. Among women born in England and Wales between 1954 and 1958, those who obtained a higher education qualification began motherhood on average five years later than women who did not obtain a higher qualification. Nearly a quarter of women with degrees remain childless. For career women with a good job, the "opportunity cost" of having a child, measured in lost income and chances for promotion, would be greater and might deter them from having children in the early stages of their career or even altogether.

In addition, there have been changes in attitudes towards marriage. The proportion of British people who choose to marry has been declining, with more people living together without getting married.

Finally, the number of British couples divorcing has climbed high, which peaked at 165,000 in 1993. Britain has the highest divorce rate in the European Union in 2001.

Ⅱ. Marriage

Views on marriage diversify to a large degree. According to Socrates, "marriage is an institution in which a man loses his bachelor's degree and the woman gets her master's status." Confucius believed that "marriage is the union of two different surnames, in friendship and in love, in order to continue the posterity of the former sages..." Thomas De Quincey, English philosopher, historian, and literary essayist, defined marriage as "a union between two persons, who lived in harmony so absolute with each other, as to be independent of the world outside".

No matter how society changes, marriage still remains the most important among all relationships and one of the primary goals in life for most people in the UK.

The Age to Get Married

One only has to be 16 years old to get married in the UK. But in England and Wales, if one person gets married under 18, he or she needs parental consent. However, in Scotland one can get married without anyone's permission from 16 years old. Because of this rule, a place in Scotland called Gretna Green became famous for weddings. It is the first registry office over the border from England into Scotland. As a result, young people who wanted to get married without their parents' consent would run away to Gretna Green. Now Gretna Green has become quite a prestigious place to get married, so it's not so easy these days to just run away to get married there.

Although the British minimum age of getting married is 16, it is not a common thing to get married at such a young age in Britain. Today people are generally getting married at a later age. The average age

for a woman to get married in Britain is 32, or 29 only counting people getting married for the first time. Men tend to get married when they are older: the average age is 35, or 31 for first marriages. There were more than 270,000 marriages in 2003, and only 2.6% of brides were under the age of 20, and just 0.7% of grooms were teenagers.

Nowadays, in the UK people would be quite surprised if some get married when they are still teenagers. And often people tend to wait for quite a long time before getting married.

Engagement

An engagement is a promise to marriage; it is also the period of time between proposal and marriage, which involves certain procedures of preparations for the upcoming wedding. During this period, future brides and bridegrooms are often referred to as fiancées and fiancés. However, engagement does not always lead to the ultimate wedding.

As a symbol of love and commitment between two people, a ring is often given as an engagement present in the UK. Traditionally, it is worn on the fourth finger of the left hand, which is also the wedding ring finger. Tradition has it that this finger is the beginning of the "vein of love", since a vein from this finger runs directly to the heart. A girl wearing an engagement ring is also a social sign, telling people that she has been engaged and soon will marry someone. In comparison, not many fiancés wear engagement rings in Britain.

Some engagements are announced at an engagement party, which is traditionally hosted by the bride-to-be's parents. In such a case, it is usually a get-together in the family home, attended by family members and close relatives of the engaged couple. Traditionally, at engagement parties a surprise announcement of the engagement was made by the father of the bride-to-be to his guests. In modern times, an engagement party can serve a few purposes. It could be a way of introducing both sets of parents to each other over an informal meal. It could be a bigger event held in a hall or a private function room in restaurants or pubs, to which friends and colleagues are also invited. There are also engagement parties that celebrate a previously announced engagement. Of course, many couples do not have an engagement party, and instead use other ways to inform their friends of the "good news".

The Marriage Ceremony

Over half the weddings in the UK take place in local register offices and the rest are religious ceremonies of one kind or another. A few years ago changes in the law allowed couples to get married in all sorts of places (known as a Civil Wedding Ceremony). Most weddings take place on Saturday afternoons. This is very much the "peak period" in any week for getting married.

Usually before the wedding takes place, the future Brides have "Hen" nights and the future bridegrooms have "Stag" parties, which are similar to bachelor/bachelorette parties.

For couples getting married in a church, "banns" announcing the proposed wedding are read aloud in the church three Sundays before the wedding. It is considered unlucky for the bride and bridegroom to be present at the calling of the banns.

On the wedding day relatives and friends will gather in the church. The bridegroom wearing a suit (top hat and tales), arrive first with the best man, who is supposed to look after the wedding ring during the ceremony and wait for the bride at the altar at the front of the church. Traditionally the bride wearing a white dress will arrive a little late (not to appear too enthusiastic!). The bride may be attended by

bridesmaids and pageboys. She will walk up the aisle with her father or other male relative who will give her away. Then the couple make their vows to each other, and exchange rings.

After the wedding, guests are invited to attend a meal and further celebrations. This is known as the wedding reception. Guests leave presents for the bride and groom on a table in the room where the reception is taken place. It is traditional for the best man, bride's father and the bridegroom to give a speech at the wedding reception.

At the wedding reception, there is usually a special wedding cake, often with two or more tiers. Each tier may be made of a different type of cake to satisfy the tastes of all the wedding guests.

After the wedding has taken place, it is a tradition for the newly-weds to go away on a holiday. Centuries ago it was customary for the bride and bridegroom to drink mead made from honey, for a month after the wedding; a month was known as a moon. There came the "honeymoon".

Cohabitation

There's an old-fashioned English expression to describe cohabitation — living in sin; however, now most British people would not be surprised or shocked when couples live together when they are not married. In fact, 79% of couples who got married in 2003 were already living together before they got married. According to the official statistics, between 1986 and 1999, the proportion of non-married women (aged under 60) cohabiting rose from 13 per cent to 25 per cent. For men it more than doubled from 11 per cent to 26 per cent over the same period.

Cohabiting couples are also starting families without being married. The proportion of births outside marriage was almost five times greater in 1999 than in 1971. In 1999, nearly two-fifths of births were outside marriage.

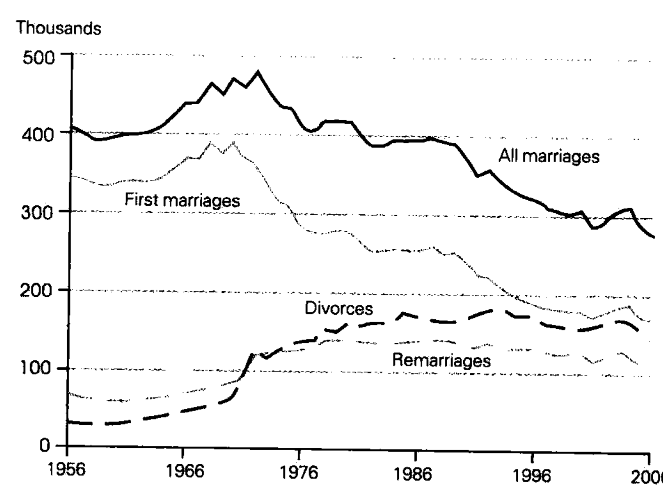
For most people in the UK, cohabitation is only part of the process of getting married and not a replacement for it. A survey in 1998 indicated that nearly three-quarters of never married childless people under 35 who were cohabiting expected to marry each other. Seven out of eight of those cohabiting expected to marry at some time.

Divorce

In the past, people got married and stayed married. Divorce was very difficult, expensive, and time-consuming. While from 1961 to 1999, in the UK there were noticeable jumps in divorce rates partly because of the simplified process of divorce rectified by the *Divorce Reform Act 1969* and *the Matrimonial and Family Proceedings Act 1984*.

Britain has the highest marriage rate and the second highest divorce and remarriage rate in Europe. The graph above illustrates the changes in marriage and divorce between 1956 and 2006.

The number of first marriages has decreased significantly, while divorces have



Marriage and Divorces, UK

increased steadily. Divorces in the UK rose over the two decades from 1973 (113,000) to reach a high of 180,000 in 1993. In the next seven years to 2000, divorces fell steadily to a low of 155,000 (1995 and 1996 witnessed a slight rise). From 2000 they rose for four consecutive years to reach 167,000 in 2004 and then fell again to around 148,000 in 2006. This is the lowest number of divorces since 1977, a rate of 12.2 divorces per 1,000 married men/women.

In 2006 the most common age at divorce for both men and women was 25 to 29 years. For women, there were 27 divorces per 1,000 married women and for men, 26 per 1,000 married men.

Sociological Explanations of the Increase in Divorce

1. The value of marriage: People nowadays have higher expectations on marriage and therefore are more likely to end a relationship that would have been acceptable or endurable in the past. A higher divorce rate indicates higher standards of marriage in society. There is also a higher rate of remarriage, which suggests that the idea of marriage has not been devalued.

2. Conflict between spouses: couples are under pressure from all sides, pressure from bosses at work, emotional pressure of not spending enough time at home and financial pressure of working to pay the mortgage and bills. As now more nuclear families are gradually moving further apart from extended families, couples may need more emotional support or comfort from each other. This puts a kind of "emotional overload" on the family.

3. The ease of divorce: In the past, only very wealthy Britons could afford divorce, because divorce needed to be approved by a private act of parliament before 1857. In the year 1969 Divorce Reform Act was passed and the idea of "irretrievable breakdown of the marriage" was recognized as valid reason for divorce. New legislation relating to divorce was also introduced in 1984. As a result, costs in divorce were reduced to a large extent, and government provided free legal advice and paid solicitor's fees for those who could not afford them.

4. Women, paid employment and marital conflict: Today working wives are still expected to be responsible for the main share of housework and raising children. In addition, they are still expected, to some degree, to play a subservient role to the male head of the household. Therefore, conflict often results in marital breakdown. In 1999 about 70 per cent of divorce was initiated by wives, 30 per cent by husbands. It is largely wives' dissatisfaction that accounts for the rising divorce rate.

5. Income and class: The highest divorce rates are found in the lower middle-class and lower working-class, because the strain of being unable to live up to material expectations will affect spouses in both groups.

6. Age: The lower the age at marriage, the higher the rate of divorce. As teenage couples grow up, they often grow apart, due to their changed outlook. Teenagers are less likely to have the skill to select a compatible partner and less likely to be aware of the responsibilities that marriage requires.

7. Marital status of parents: If parents have been divorced, there will be greater possibility for young couples to end their marriage in divorce. Marriage conflict appeared in parents' marriages may produce psychological instability in the children who then express this in their own marriages.

8. Background and role expectations: Research has proven that divorce is more likely if the spouses have different social backgrounds, for example, different class or ethnic groups. They may then have different expectations concerning marital roles. Given the increasing geographical and social mobility that result in greater possibility for marriages between individuals from different backgrounds, there is greater

potential for marital conflict.

9. Occupations: There seems to be a higher rate of divorce in some occupations than in others. Actors, authors, artists, company directors and hotel-keepers have high divorce rates. In addition, high involvement in works may also result in failures of marriage.

III. Relationships within the Family

Husbands and Wives

Talking about the relationship between husband and wife, it is impossible not to mention an important concept — conjugal roles. Conjugal roles refer to the positions that the husband and wife occupy in the home and the parts they play.

Conjugal roles may be divided into two general categories: joint conjugal roles and segregated conjugal roles. When husbands and wives share housework and childcare, decision-makings and leisure time they have joint conjugal roles; however, when husbands and wives do not share housework and childcare, decision-makings and leisure time they have segregated conjugal roles.

Conjugal roles have changed over time in society, and lots of sociologists did a great deal of research in this field in order to discover its changing patterns. Some sociologists believe in the "new man"— men who do housework and childcare; others say the new man does not exist — women still do the most of the work in the home.

The Pre-industrial Family

Before the industrial revolution, people in Britain lived mainly in the countryside and worked on farms. All members of the family worked together. As a result, there was no housewife role at that time.

The Industrial Family

After the industrial revolution, British people moved to towns and cities in great numbers, where they had work in factories. Owing to the ban on children's working in factories, women had to stay at home and look after them. Here came the role of housewife. At that time, there was a clear-cut division of labour between the husband and wife in the household. The husband was relatively uninvolved with domestic chores and raising the children, because they were thought to be the wife's job whereas the man's job was to be the breadwinner.

The Modern Family

According to sociologists Young and Willmott (1973), the modern family has a strong bond between the husband and wife and a merely equal sharing of housework in home. The husband and wife spend leisure time together and there is equality between them. They call this kind of family the symmetrical family, which means that the roles are more or less equal with men and women spending the same amount of time on tasks in the home. Young and Willmott found that the symmetrical family was common amongst middle class families but not working class families; however, they believed that eventually the working class families would become symmetrical. To support their theory of the increasingly symmetrical family, Young and Willmott found that 72 per cent of husbands did housework other than washing up during a week. However, this finding is open to the criticism posed by Ann Oakley that any man who did only one thing other than washing up in a week would be included in the

72 per cent.

Ann Oakley, another sociologist in 1974, did some housework research. She studied 40 London housewives. 20 were middle class, and 20 working class. Her findings are very different to Young and Willmott. She found that middle class men share more in domestic tasks than working class men, and only 15 per cent of men had a high level of participation in housework, and 25 per cent of men in childcare. The average number of hours spent on housework by the women is 77 hr/week; 70 per cent of women said they were dissatisfied with being a housewife. In addition, the husbands saw housework their wives' jobs and they were just helpers; similarly, women also believed that they had the responsibility to be housewives, and some even thought men who did housework were not real men. Based on her research findings, Oakley held the view that the symmetrical family does not exist and that families are still patriarchal or male dominated.

Housework Survey

The British Social Attitudes Survey of 1992, based on a sample of 1000 married couples, showed that child-rearing was more often shared than household tasks, which indicated a slight movement towards a more symmetrical sharing of tasks over time.

Based on a sample of 323 predominantly middle class families, the survey conducted by the Lancaster Regionalism Group highlighted the lack of equal sharing of domestic tasks. Women cooked the last meal in 79 per cent of these households, last washed the clothes in 87 per cent, last tied up in 72 per cent and last bathed the children in 71 per cent. This coincides with Oakley's argument that women are increasingly facing a dual burden— maintaining their prime responsibility for the household whilst also taking paid employment.

According to UK 2000 Time Use Survey, during which 6,500 households and 11,700 individuals were interviewed, everyday women spent half the amount of time in paid employment than men and almost double the amount of time in household chores than their husbands.

In paid employment, men averaged nearly 4 hours/day and women 2 hours/day. As for different kinds of household chores, the survey showed that 60 per cent of men and 92 per cent of women engage in ironing and laundry, while 94 per cent of men involve in the household repair work in comparison to 50 per cent of women. In decorating and gardening, the percentages of men and women getting involved are almost the same, each about 50 per cent.

Average Daily Housework & Main Chores	
Men(2 hrs 20 mins)	Women(4 hrs)
Cooking	Cooking
Childcare	Childcare
Gardening	Cleaning house
Pet care	Laundry

Research from Oxford University in 2001 also shows that working has only a minimal impact on the amount of time a woman devotes to housework. The study finds out that women in full-time employment spend nearly 12 hours a week on housework and share about 65 per cent of household chores at home; men, however, spend between 5 and 7 hours a week dusting and cleaning. These results match those

prior studies: women are still doing the lion's share or three quarters of housework at home even though they are working.

Parents and Children

When it comes to the relationship between parents and children, it seems that generation gap is something that can't be avoided. Generation gap refers to the differences in customs, attitudes, and beliefs between any two generations, but especially between youths and adults.

Growing up is not an easy process and teenage years are often fraught with anxieties: puberty, pimples and parents, all of which may cause embarrassment for teenagers. The older generation know very well about teenage life, for they have experienced similar sorts of embarrassments; however, when they were young, things were quite different. The education system of the 40s and 50s put a firm emphasis on discipline and uniformity, while today's education system encourages individuality and expression of opinion. Teachers in the past were highly respected or even feared individuals. Answering back was unheard of and all work was completed with the help of a fountain pen and paper. In contrast, the teenagers in today's Britain have grown up with computers and the internet: they are said to be "Net" generation who have abandoned ink and paper. Play stations and mobile phones are their companions; wireless technology and broadband have been as natural to them as breathing and eating.

Most children today use emails, which are free, instant and easy, to keep in touch with absent friends or long distance relatives. That's why they don't understand the concept of writing a letter, which involves "complicated" procedures such as writing a draft, copying it out neatly, buying a stamp, finding a post box and remembering to post it.

With so many differences, can the two generations really understand each other? Experts now are worrying about the growing "digital divide" between parents and children.

Among 1,800 children aged between 5 and 16 at 92 schools across the UK, 2008's annual study of Childwise UK, a leading research specialist on children and young people finds out that kids spend an average of six hours of "screen time" a day and the amount of "screen time" kids are spending in front of TVs and computers is creating barriers between parents and their offspring. What's more, social networking has become increasingly popular among children in the UK. 30 per cent of those surveyed claimed to have a blog and 62 per cent have a profile on a social networking site such as MySpace or Bebo. This partly explains why one in three of the children in the survey claim that they can not live without a computer.

Meanwhile, book reading is losing its popularity among British children in recent years. According to the Guardian, 84 per cent of children said they read for pleasure in the year 2006, while the number dropped steadily in the following two years, 80 per cent in 2007 and 74 per cent in 2008.

In order to bridge the gap, experts suggest that parents should keep themselves updated with the latest electronic products so as to better communicate with and understand their children, what's more, to monitor and protect children from potential risks.

In all, to handle the relations between parents and teenagers, which some people say make the Middle East peace process seem comparatively easy to solve, extra patience, mutual understanding and frequent communication are always called for on both parties — the youths and the adults.

The following poem illustrates how teenagers and adults feel differently.

A teenager feels pain if nobody breaks his heart.
An adult feels pain if somebody breaks his heart.
A teenager believes that he is the owner of the world.
An adult knows that he is not even owner of his own life.
A teenager feels that time goes by slowly.
An adult feels he wasted his life when he was a teenager.
A teenager wants to be an adult.
An adult wants to be a teenager again.

Older People

Older people make up an increasing proportion of the UK population. Data offered by the Office for National Statistics (2009) show that the UK population is growing older. In the nation the population aged 65 and over has increased by 1.5 million over the last 25 years, which accounts for about 16 per cent of the population by 2008 — one per cent increase from the year 1983. Over the same period, the percentage of the population aged 16 and under decreased from 21 per cent to 19 per cent. It is estimated that this trend will continue. By 2033, 23 per cent of the population will be aged 65 and over while 18 per cent of the population will be aged 16 or under. The increase in the size of the older population has largely been driven by increases in life expectancy. Life expectancy at birth in the UK has reached its highest level on record for both males and females. A newborn baby boy could expect to live 77.2 years and a newborn baby girl 81.5 years if mortality rates remain the same as they were in 2005-07.

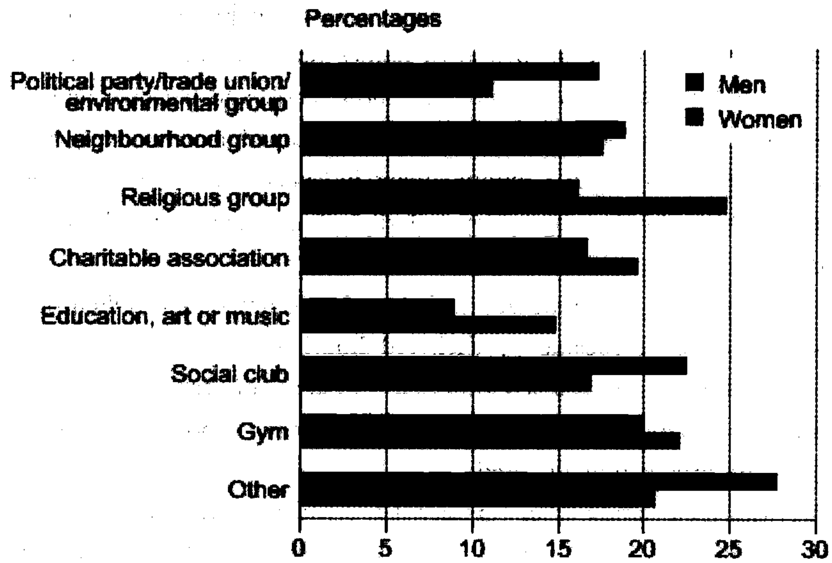
The fastest population growth has been in the number of those aged 85 and over. In 1983, there were just over 600,000 people in the UK aged 85 and over. Since then the number has more than doubled reaching 1.3 million in 2008. By 2033, the population of 85 year olds and over is projected to more than double again to reach 3.2 million, which will account for 5 per cent of the total population. A rang of factors contribute to this rise: the increase in the number of population aged between 80 and 100, improvements in medical treatment, housing, living standards and nutrition etc.

Although the UK population has been living longer, how people spend their later years differ greatly in terms of lifestyle, living arrangements, and health conditions etc. Many older people lead active and healthy lives for many years over the age of 50. Employment rates for people in their fifties have risen in the past decade, and it is this age group who are most likely to be providing unpaid care. However, for the very old, there may be barriers which prevent them from participating in a wide variety of activities.

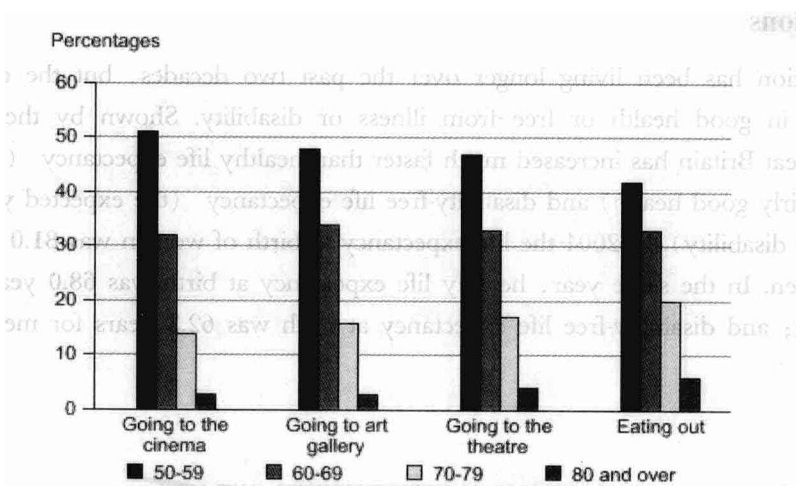
Lifestyles

As shown by the graph above, a greater proportion of men than women aged 50 and over were members of political parties, trade unions or environmental groups and social clubs. Women were more likely to participate in educational, art or music classes, charitable associations and religious groups.

In addition, according to the studies done by the Office for National Statistics, in 2006 more than two-thirds of women and men aged 50 and over in England said that they had gone on a day trip in the last year. Fifty-eight per cent of women and men aged 50 and over had holidayed in the UK in the last year and about half of women and men of this age said that they had gone abroad on holiday in the last year. From these, it can be seen that older people's travelling patterns depend to a large degree on their health conditions and general mobility and people's ability to travel in turn affects their quality of life.



Participation in organisations, clubs or societies for people aged 50 and over by sex, England, 2006



Participation in leisure activity at least once a year by age, England, 2006

The percentage of older people in England who had been to the cinema, art gallery, theatre or eaten out at least once a year fell with age. In 2006 about 50 per cent of people aged 50 to 59 had gone to the cinema and around 40 per cent had spent time eating out at least once a year. These numbers fell to about 15 per cent and 20 per cent respectively for those aged 70 to 79. Less than 5 per cent of those aged 80 and over had participated in these leisure activities at least once a year.

Living Arrangements

The living situation for the old in the UK is varied. The majority perfer to live independent and fulfilling lives after retirement, so they remain independent for as long as possible. They often live in the homes in which they had been living prior to retirement, for one's own home tends to represent security

and independence to most elderly. In this way the elderly can well enjoy their independence and privacy; however, individuals who wish to live in their own homes upon retiring must be able to take care of themselves, e.g. they should at least be able to drive, shop, cook and perform household chores. Thus for most seniors, physical health problem is identified as the impediment to living independently. They often need assistance to enable them to continue living independently, such as financial support and transportation assistance. Other disadvantages may include feeling lonely and isolated, and being far from children and relatives etc.

An alternative to living alone is moving into a sheltered accommodation. Often provided by the local government or privately funded associations, sheltered housing is designed to suit the needs of the elderly: groups of flats or houses are installed with alarm system connecting each home with a warden's office; social activities are available in the communal lounge; other support in housekeeping, meals and drinks, and nursing etc. are provided as required.

Other elderly live with their family or in "granny flat", which refers to a small apartment attached to a primary residence. This provides some privacy for both the elderly and their children, and family help is also at hand if needed.

There are also residential or nursing homes, where experienced professionals take care of the seniors and they may have more opportunities for social interaction.

Health Conditions

The population has been living longer over the past two decades, but the extra years have not necessarily been in good health or free from illness or disability. Shown by the ONS research, life expectancy in Great Britain has increased much faster than healthy life expectancy (the expected years of life in good or fairly good health) and disability-free life expectancy (the expected years of life without a limiting illness or disability). In 2004 the life expectancy at birth of women was 81.0 years compared with 76.6 years for men. In the same year, healthy life expectancy at birth was 68.0 years for men and 70.3 years for women; and disability-free life expectancy at birth was 62.3 years for men and 64.0 years for women.

Glossary

ethical 道德的,伦理的
institution 制度
implication 含义
interact 相互影响,相互作用
multiply 繁殖
arbitrary 任意的
lesbian 女同性恋者
communal 共享的,共用的
bread-winner 挣钱养家的人
homemaker 料理家务的人
relic 遗物,遗迹
portrayal 描绘
sitcom 情景剧
lone 单亲的
corresponding 相应的
cohabit (无婚姻关系)同居
scenario 情况,局面
mortality rate 死亡率

deter 阻止,制止
diversify 多样化,变化
posterity 后代,后裔
sage 智者,圣人
consent 同意,许可,允许
engagement 订婚
proposal 求婚
procedure 程序,步骤
fiancée 未婚妻
fiancé 未婚夫
commitment 承诺,许诺
vein 静脉
bride-to-be 未来新娘
get-together 聚会
banns (教堂里的)结婚预告
altar 圣坛
bridesmaid 女傧相,伴娘
pageboy 新娘的伴童
aisle 走道,过道
tier 层
customary 习俗的,习惯的
mead (旧时)蜜糖酒,蜂蜜酒
replacement 替代品
time-consuming 费时的,耗时间的
noticeable 显著的
simplified 简化的
rectify 纠正
remarriage 再婚
consecutive 连续的
endurable 能忍耐的
devalue 贬值
mortgage 按揭贷款
overload 过量,负荷过重
irretrievable 不可纠正的
legislation 立法,法律
solicitor 律师
marital 婚姻的
subservient 恭顺的
initiate 开始,发起
strain 压力,重负
compatible 志趣相投的,和睦相处的
instability 不稳定,不稳固
conjugal 婚姻的,夫妻的
segregated 分开的,孤立的
clear-cut 明确的
domestic chores 家庭杂务
symmetrical 对称的
patriarchal 由男性统治或控制的
child-rearing 养育子女
predominantly 占主导地位地
highlight 强调,突出
coincide (意见,想法)相同,相符,一致
dual 双重的
prime 首要的,主要的
the lion's share 最大的份额
be fraught with 充满的
puberty 青春期
pimples 青春痘
discipline 自制力,遵守纪律
uniformity 一致,统一
individuality 个性,特质
companion 同伴,伙伴
wireless 无线电的,无线的
draft 草稿
offspring 子孙,后代
profile 概述,简介
monitor 监督
project *v.* 预测,预计
charitable 慈善事业的
impediment 阻碍,障碍
sheltered 为需要者(尤指老年人)
warden 看守人,监护人

Cultural Notes

1. Nuclear family is also called elementary family. In sociology and anthropology, it refers to a group of

people united by ties of marriage and parenthood or adoption and consisting of a man, a woman, and their socially recognized children. This unit was once widely held to be the most basic and universal form of social organization.

2. **Bachelor party** also known as a stag party, or stag night, is a party held for a bachelor shortly before he enters marriage, to make the most of his final opportunity to engage in activities a new partner might not approve of, or merely to spend time with his male friends who are often in his wedding party afterwards.
3. **Bachelorette party** also known as hen party, or hen night, is a party held for a woman who is about to be married. The bachelorette party is modeled after the bachelor party, and it is often a normal party, given in honor of the bride-to-be, in the style that is common to that social circle.
4. **Extended family** is an expansion of the nuclear family, usually built around a group in which descent through either the female or the male line is emphasized. The extended family system often, but not exclusively, occurs in regions in which economic conditions make it difficult for the nuclear family to achieve self-sufficiency. The extended family may include more distant kin.
5. **Social networking sites (SNSs)** popular internet websites such as MySpace, Facebook, Bebo, Friendster, and Orkut etc. On these sites, members create and maintain personal profiles that could then be linked to the profiles of other members. The end result is a network of "friends" or "contacts" that share similar interests, business goals, or academic courses. The most basic social networking software allow friends to comment on one another's profiles, send private messages within the network, and traverse the extended web of friends that is visible in each member's profile. More advanced SNSs enable members to enhance their profiles with audio and video clips, and some open their software source code to allow third-party developers to create applications or small programs that ran within the member's profile page.
6. **Digital divide** refers to the gap between people with effective access to digital and information technology and those with very limited or no access at all. It includes the imbalances in physical access to technology as well as the imbalances in resources and skills needed to effectively participate as a digital citizen. In other words, it is the unequal access by some members of society to information and communication technology, and the unequal acquisition of related skills.
7. **Granny flat** also known as mother-in-law apartment, granny suite, in-law suite and accessory apartment. Such apartments are frequently used to accommodate an elderly relative who is not capable of living on their own, but is not ready for a nursing home environment or other similar facility. The apartment has a separate entrance and sometimes a communicating door to the main house. It is often not part of the original architectural design, so many are located above the garage of the main house or as a separate building in the rear yard.

Questions for Discussion

1. What is the image of a traditional British family?
2. What're the changes taken place in British households and families? What has caused these changes?
3. How do contemporary British people view marriage? What is the common procedure for a British

man to get married?

4. What changes have occurred in people's opinions towards cohabitation? Why?
5. What factors contribute to the rise in divorce rates?
6. How do you think the roles of husbands and wives have changed over the time? How can you explain these changes?
7. How is the housework shared between husbands and wives in modern British families? Why?
8. What do you think has caused the generation gap? What solutions can you suggest?
9. Briefly introduce the general situation of older people in the UK.
10. Since British people now are living longer, do you think they are also living happier lives? Why?

Supplementary Reading

Families Today

Families are the building blocks of our society, and in Britain, there are more than 16 million of them. And if there's one thing that most of us have an opinion about, it's family life. Everyone, from plumbers to politicians, has a view on how we should rear our children, discipline our teenagers, care for our elderly and organise our work/life balance.

In less than a century, the family has changed radically. Twenty-five years ago, 25% of mothers with pre-school children were in work; by 1996/7, that percentage had doubled to 50% (although only a third of these mothers worked full-time). And while studies show that most people keep in touch with close relatives and that the family remains the major source of informal care and support, the presence of an extended family can no longer be taken for granted.

No rush to the altar

Most of us will choose to marry at some point during our lives. However, the number of those who do has been on the decline for over 50 years. In England and Wales in 1950, before rock 'n' roll had gripped the nation's youth, there were 358,490 marriages. By 1991, this number had fallen to 306,800 and it continues to reduce - in 1999, there were only 263,500 marriages.

We are also older when we take the plunge. In England and Wales, the average age at first marriage is now 28 years for women and 30 years for men, compared to 24 years for women and 26 years for men in 1986.

Despite the increasing divorce rate, we have emerged as a nation of optimists - a large proportion of marriages are remarriages. In 1971, one in five of all marriages were remarriages; by 1997, the proportion had climbed to just over two in five. However, stepfamilies, although growing in number, still only account for 8% of all families with dependent children.

What's the alternative?

Social mores have also changed. "Living in sin" is no longer the transgression it once was. The decline in marriage has been accompanied by a growth in co-habitation, both before and instead of marriage.

Most of us now prefer a trial run. In the 1950s, the percentage of women co-habiting before their

first marriage was very small-less than 2%. By the mid-1990s, about 75% of women embarking on their first marriages reported that they had lived with their future husbands before marching down the aisle.

But experts have yet to discover whether co-habitation is replacing marriage. Statistics show that co-habiting relationships last, on average, two to three years before the partners split or opt for a wedding. Overall, less than 10% of people in Britain are co-habiting.

The shrinking family

Our families are getting smaller as women choose to have fewer children and others choose to have none at all. Result: the birth rate has taken a dive. Only 10% of women born in 1943 were childless at the age of 45. By contrast, experts predict that 25% of women born in 1973 will be childless at the same age.

Women are also older when they first give birth - the average age is 29 compared to 26 in the early 1970s.

Breaking up

No longer is marriage for life. It is predicted that just over 40% of marriages will end in divorce.

And co-habitation doesn't seem to be the answer. Unmarried couples are at greater risk of break-up than married ones. The most recent figures show that they are three to four times more likely to split up than their married counterparts.

Parents going it alone

The number of families headed by lone parents has more than trebled in the past 25 years, according to statistical estimates. They now account for 20% of all families with children.

Many argue that politicians and commentators have unfairly blamed lone mothers for everything from youth crime to welfare spending. J.K. Rowling, famous single parent and author of the *Harry Potter* children's books, has spoken angrily about the treatment of lone parents and has taken on the role of ambassador for the National Council for One Parent Families.

She says that it is time to "explode the popular myth that most lone parents are feckless teenagers trying to get a council flat. Only 3% of us are teenagers; 60% of us have been married and are now separated, divorced or bereaved. I'd like to see widespread acceptance of the fact that families simply come in many shapes and sizes."

Single minded

Most news commentators talk about couples and families. However, more than 6.5 million people in Britain live on their own — three times as many as 40 years ago. Experts attribute the dramatic rise to:

Our greater longevity

Relationship breakdown

Young people living independently outside the family home before cohabiting or marriage.

Teenage kicks

According to the latest figures, there are 5,199,600 teenagers in the UK. Many parents will be relieved to hear that the vast majority of them will go through the difficult years without falling into a life of crime or becoming hooked on drugs and alcohol. In fact, even the stereotypical teenagers as portrayed by comedian Harry Enfield's Kevin and his sidekick Perry are wide of the mark, according to two studies published in spring 2001.

"Screaming matches and all-out warfare are not necessarily the norm." say the groups of ordinary teenagers and their parents interviewed by researchers of the Joseph Rowntree Foundation for the report

Pulling Together, Pulling Apart. Most of them have a positive view of family life and see it as a source of support, love, help and care.

These parents and teenagers reported that relationships between them had improved as the young people moved through their teenage years, eventually coming closer to a companionship between equals. The other study, *Family Understandings*, carried out by the Family Policy Studies Centre, found that most parents welcomed the open relationship they had with their children and were happy to influence them through discussion and negotiation.

However, as any parent knows, the teenage years can also be a time of great tension as young people make a bid for independence. "When you ask parents what they worry about, they say it's teenage risk-taking behavior such as drugs, alcohol and hanging around on the streets," says Mary MacLeod, chief executive of the National Family and Parenting Institute.

In a survey of young people in secondary schools in England entitled Drugs, Smoking and Drinking among Teenagers

In 1999, government statisticians found that more than 10% of children aged 11-15 had used drugs in the last year.

"They're all dressed up with nowhere to go, and if they're left like that, it's no surprise that some fall prey to anti-social influences," says Ms MacLeod. She believes investment in youth services is essential to provide young people with outlets for their energies.

Families today struggle to steer a course between exerting enough control to keep their offspring out of trouble and allowing them enough freedom to develop as individuals.

"Parents can only do their best, hope for the best and keep an eye on their children's friendships," Ms MacLeod concludes.

Grey power

The powerful combination of a fall in the birth rate and increasing longevity of older people means that the population as a whole is ageing. In the UK today, there are now 12 million people over the age of 60, accounting for just over a fifth of the population. It is estimated that, in 2030, there will be 19 million -about a third of the population - outnumbering all adults under the age of 40.

Developments in health and social care are being shaped by the needs of this growing section of the population. The question of how to support older people is taxing the minds of politicians and policy-makers, who are constantly debating how society should pay for long-term care and who should deliver it.

But while there are significant problems associated with an ageing population, campaigners want us to recognize the benefits that older people - whether they are grandparents or work colleagues - bring to society. For instance, after mothers and fathers, grandparents are the single most important source of pre-school childcare.

Helena Herklots of Age Concern says there have been some improvements in the lives of older people, such as the introduction of the minimum income guarantee and moves on age discrimination. But more, she says, needs to be done. Government needs to ensure that the infrastructure is in place to allow older people to be active citizens. This means better transport, pensions and healthcare.

New challenges

When it comes to family life, successive governments have struggled with how much to interfere in what is essentially a private institution.

That said family breakdown costs the public purse an estimated £5 billion a year in benefits and other state support - a bill that ministers are keen to reduce. Problems such as teenage pregnancy and youth crime have generated widespread concern, and in turn, a rash of government initiatives have set up to support parenting. These include the National Childcare Initiative and the Working Families Tax Credit, aimed at low-income families.

Cerdiwen Roberts of the Family Policy Studies Centre, the recently closed think-tank that studied family change, says that a range of factors is shaping government policy. First, the number of young people is shrinking so society needs to ensure that as many as possible grow up to become useful, working members of society. Second, says Ms Roberts, people are having smaller families than they once did and are focusing their energies on doing their best for only a couple of children. She adds that parents' anxiety about their children is heightened by the fact that this is the first generation where youth culture has as powerful a voice as they do.

According to Mary MacLeod of the National Family and Parenting Institute, "In the past, there was greater consensus about what to do when raising a child. That picture is more confused now - correctly so - but it makes it hard for a government to intervene."

Families today are still of paramount importance, says Cerdiwen Roberts. "The difference is that now it's more of an uphill struggle to raise them."

The Functions and Meaning of the Family in Britain

The family can be studied both in terms of its effects on its individual members and in terms of its effects on other institutions in society. These can vary through time and there is much controversy over the significance of the family in Britain today and whether its effects are positive or negative. Some see the family as the most important factor in the formation of a healthy personality and the foundation of a good society, while others see the tensions of family life as the cause of most psychological problems. Yet others argue that it is relatively insignificant in that families can break up at a rate that would be unacceptable for businesses to go bankrupt or military organisation to collapse.

In pre-industrial Britain, the family, or at least the household, was significant in the economy as a unit of production, and there are still "family businesses" in some areas such as agriculture, craft production and retailing where members of a family work together. Wealthy families are also likely to incorporate their members as shareholders, directors or managers in their businesses. However, the more usual pattern is for husband and wife to work seperately and for their children to seek work as individuals. Economic roles are more generally "achieved" on merit, rather than "ascribed" on the basis of family membership.

However, the family does continue to have economic significance as a 'unit of consumption'. A lot of money earned in the economy is spent by families on their homes, on their children and on family leisure activities. Support of this family lifestyle is therefore a major motivation for participation in the economy and helps ensure a willing and steady supply of labour. This in turn is one influence on family structure, in so far as the mobile nuclear family is flexible enough to move to where the jobs are. The consumer demands of the family influence the goods and services produced and how they are marketed. This process is reinforced as advertisers use the image of the ideal family to sell their products. The family thus provides the labour force for companies to produce things for the family to spend its earnings on. A

"successful" family will service its members so that they are healthy and well motivated workers and, in seeking the advertised ideal of family life, also provide eager consumers. Thus the family helps support the dynamics of the economic system and the profits of those who own it.

One interpretation of the role of the family is therefore to see it as a means of exploitation. Companies can encourage an ideology of "consumerism", which when focused on the family's needs appears less selfish. Responsibility to provide for the family becomes used as a pressure to work for employers, however dull the work or unfair the rewards. Housewives are encouraged to have a sense of responsibility for their husbands and to work in the home without pay to make sure they are well fed, well dressed and soothed after their day's work. Parents must socialize their children to be fit for school and then the labour market.

As well as a convenient support for capitalism, the family has been seen as a support for patriarchy, or the dominance of men over women in society. Within the home, the ideology of the family requires the wife to supply unpaid labour to maintain the whole family. This requirement limits her opportunity to compete equally in the labour market or the political sphere outside the home. Her lack of position in the wider society reinforces her dependence on the man in the home.

Almost all children in Britain grow up in some kind of a family. The socialization of children can include providing an atmosphere of security and love, an understanding of authority, responsibility and discipline, an introduction to the general norms of the society, the transmission of fundamental beliefs and everyday practical knowledge and the development of basic skills of movement, language and relationships. How far do families in Britain actually do this? They appear to be the primary providers of these experiences, though that is not to say they all achieve, or want to achieve the same goals, the family is not, however the sole provider-schools and television may support or contradict the family's views, either directly or through friendship networks.

The strong psychological influence of the family has also been seen as potentially damaging. Some have argued that the "privatised" nature of the modern nuclear family can cut people off from a wider sense of community and the rich range of relationships among neighbourhood and extended kin. The intense intimacy of a few people living so closely together and being emotionally dependent on each other has been seen as a route of potential strain on each of the family members. A child may see itself as a "tennis ball" in the contests between its parents. Its sense of being labelled as "favourite", "unwanted", or "not living up to expectations" may go very deep. A parent may find it impossible to fully meet the expectations of spouse, children, in-laws and employer.

The continued popularity of marriage and the family in Britain can be looked at in terms of the sense of meaning to life which these institutions can give. Although people have the capacity to be creative and influential in society, many people in Britain feel rather limited — so much of Britain comes "ready made". When people have a feeling of purposelessness or meaninglessness, or do not feel they "belong" in the wider society, the family can give a very clear sense of identity. It is a little word within which each person matters a lot. The home gives an opportunity for "small-scale world-construction" — it may be difficult to influence the design of your town, but you can choose the design of your wallpaper. A home gives a location in the universe, which is constantly affirmed by both the conversation within it and by the postman and the rest of society beyond. It is a set of relationships which provides an anticipated route of romantic love, companionship and responsibility which does not assume economic or political success.

It provides a sense of significance and creativity at the same time as providing constant conversational support for a stable definition of one's self and of an ordered social world.

Further Reading

1. *Work-Life Balance in the 21st Century Diane Huston* (eds) Palgrave Macmillan
2. *The Family on the Threshold of the 21st Century Trends and Implications* Edited by Solly Dreman, Psychology Press, 1997

Useful Websites

1. http://www.familiesonline.co.uk/
2. http://www.family2000.org.uk/index.htm
3. http://www.e-parents.org/

Chapter 10 Class Structure and Social Problems



导 读
Introduction

社会学家将阶级定义为社会中具有同样社会经济地位的人的群体，它也成为社会学中一个被广泛讨论和分析的重要概念。阶级等级分化一直是英国社会显著的特点之一，阶级的划分也有多种标准，比如按职业划分，按收入水平划分或者按照更笼统的行为举止、生活方式划分。今天，英国社会中工人阶级占主体，并且有越来越多的人认为自己是中产阶级。随着时代的变迁，英国各阶级之间的差异已经变得越来越模糊。据最近的调查，很多有高收入、受过良好教育的英国人也认为自己是工人阶级。当今英国社会也受到了很多社会问题的困扰，其中包括，贫困、滥用毒品、过量饮酒、无家可归等问题。本章主要介绍英国的阶级和社会问题。

Ⅰ. Class

What is Social Class?

According to sociologists, class refers to a group of people within a society who possess the same socioeconomic status. In other words, it refers to a collection of individuals sharing similar economic circumstances. As an important concept in social theory, it is very often discussed and analyzed by sociologists, anthropologists, political economists and social historians.

Before the 19th century, terms such as rank and order were used to describe the major hierarchical groupings in society. The term class began to be widely used and gradually took their places since the early 19th century. This change in term reflected the more significant changes in the social structure of western European countries after the industrial and political revolutions of the late 18th century. Feudal ranking system declined and new social groups emerged: the commercial and industrial capitalists and the urban working class in the new factories. They were mainly defined in economic terms, either by the ownership of capital or by dependence on wages. Although class as a term has been applied to social groups in various societies, such as ancient city-states, early empires, and caste or feudal societies, it specifically refers to the social divisions in modern societies, particularly industrialized societies.

Britain has always been recognized as a class-conscious society, though British politicians have

constantly argued for the opposite — a class-free society. In 2007, a poll conducted by the Guardian found that most British people still feel bound by class. Up to eighty-nine per cent of those surveyed feel that their social standing determines the way they are judged by the rest of the society. Only eight per cent of UK citizens feel class is irrelevant in shaping people's perceptions.

The following conversation is taken from a popular British TV comedy. It vividly portrays British attitudes to class during the 1970s. In the show, there are three men of different heights, clothes, and headgear, standing in a row. The upper class man (who is the tallest and best-dressed among the three) says: "I look down on him because I am upper class." The middle class man (who stands in the middle and dressed in an ordinary suit) says: "I look up to him because he is upper class but I look down on him because he is lower class. I am middle class." Finally, the working class man (who is the smallest among the three and dressed in working clothes with a cloth cap) says: "I know my place. I look up to them both but I don't look up to him as much as I look up to him because he has got innate breeding."

In the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries, the social, economic, and legal landscape in the UK has changed greatly, which resulted in a lot of blurring of classes, but traces of the system continue to thrive. The royal family plays a crucial role in the existence of the class system in the UK, for it defines one's position in society. If there were no royalty, there would not have been new titles, no acquiring of status, and no public confirmation of one's place in society, which is different from the prevalent social hierarchy based on wealth in the U.S.A.

Social Classes by Occupation

Since the census in 2001, the British government has adopted a new way of social classification — the National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC), which replaced two previous social classifications: Socio-economic Groups and Social Class based on Occupation.

According to NS-SEC, the UK population could be classified into eight categories in specific and three categories in general.

Eight categories are as follows:

★ Higher managerial and professional occupations

1) Employers and managers in larger organizations (e.g. company directors, senior company managers, senior civil servants, senior officers in police and armed forces.)

2) Higher professionals (e.g. doctors, lawyers, clergy, teachers and social workers.)

★ Lower managerial and professional occupations (e.g. nurses and midwives, journalists, actors, musicians, lower ranks of police and armed forces.)

★ Intermediate occupations (e.g. clerks, secretaries, driving instructors.)

★ Small employers and own account workers (e.g. pub owners, farmers, taxi drivers, window cleaners, painters and decorators.)

★ Lower supervisory and technical occupations (e.g. printers, plumbers, television engineers, train drivers, butchers.)

★ Semi-routine occupations (e.g. shop assistants, hairdressers, bus drivers, cooks.)

★ Routine occupations (e.g. couriers, labourers, waiters, and refuse collectors.)

★ Never worked and long-term unemployed

Three broad categories include:

1. Higher occupations
2. Intermediate occupations
3. Lower occupations

How is social class related to occupation? National Readership Survey (NRS) identifies five social grades based on the jobs people do. This classification has been widely adopted throughout the 20th century, even included in government reports and official statistics.

social grade	social status	occupation
A	upper middle class	higher managerial, administrative or professional
B	middle class	intermediate managerial, administrative or professional
C1	lower middle class	supervisory or clerical, junior managerial, administrative or professional
C2	skilled working class	skilled manual workers
D	working class	semi and unskilled manual workers
E	those at lowest level of subsistence	state pensioners or widows (no other earner), casual or lowest grade workers

The following table shows the percentages of UK population by social grade in 2005, according to the research and estimates of NRS. The population of the lower middle class accounts for the largest proportion of the British population — 28.9 per cent; it is followed by middle class population, which is 22.1 per cent. Only a minority population of 3.8 per cent belongs to the upper middle class. These three categories add up to 54.8 per cent of the total population.

		All adults (above 15 years old)	Men	Women
Totals	Population 000s	47,771	23,150	24,621
	Percentage %	100	100	100
Social Grade A	Population 000s	1,818	943	875
	Percentage %	3.8	4.1	3.6
Social Grade B	Population 000s	10,552	5,336	5,216
	Percentage %	22.1	23.1	21.2
Social Grade C1	Population 000s	13,800	6,341	7,459
	Percentage %	28.9	27.4	30.3
Social Grade C2	Population 000s	9,844	5,312	4,532
	Percentage %	20.6	22.9	18.4
Social Grade D	Population 000s	7,747	3,762	3,985
	Percentage %	16.2	16.2	16.2
Social Grade E	Population 000s	4,009	1,455	2,554
	Percentage %	8.4	6.3	10.4

Social Classes by Income Levels

Income levels also play a key role in determining social classes. According to Michael Meacher, the

former British environment minister and currently a Labour MP, there are five distinct social classes in Britain today. At the bottom of the social ladder are the poor, whose weekly earnings are less than £217. About 1.5 million British people with less than £227 household incomes each week also fall into this category. They are constantly afflicted by insecurity.

The largest class are those with the median income, about £454 a week in today's Britain. People who belong to this category may be from a wide range of occupations, such as sales assistants, retail check-out, nursing assistants, secretarial and security work, plant and machine operatives, electrical and construction, civil service executive grades, sales representatives, nursing service, police service and fire service etc. They are economically secure for the most of time, but still remain vulnerable to economic downturns.

Then follows the managerial and professional class, who are comfortably off. This group includes people in teaching, health and engineering sector (with an income of around £650 a week), marketing and sales managers, production managers, corporate and senior management (with an income around £1,670 a week).

At the upper end of the income scale is the rich class, who are called the top 5 per cent. According to the latest offical Survey of Personal Incomes, their annual income on average is about £96,000 with average investment income of £12,400 per year. In total, they earn as much as £2,085 a week on average.

A new class at the very top end of the income scale has now emerged. They are believed to be the "ultral-select and powerful" group. Although very few people belong to this group, their incomes are disproportionately large. At the lowest level, people in this category earn an average income of £754,000 plus £146,000 investment income a year, which is over £17,300 a week. The latest research has revealed that the chief executives of the top 100 FTSE (the 100 most highly capitalised UK companies listed on the London Stock Exchange) have an annual income of £2.8 million (£53,485 a week). What's more, at the highest level, there are people such as Bob Diamond — the president of Barclays Capital, who earns £27 million each year (£519,230 a week).

Classifying the population by occupation and the income levels are one of the many ways to identify social classes. Other indicators of a Briton's social status include his or her accent, behavior, taste and lifestyle etc. That's why it is said that when two British people meet, they can tell which class each other belongs to within moments of meeting. Nowadays, class is no longer an obstacle for people to make friends, but people do feel more comfortable socializing with those from the similar background.

The Upper Class

The upper class in Britain accounts for a very small part of the total population and consists of aristocrats, gentry and landowners. As the tradition goes, they have inherited wealth, position and land. Upper class children usually receive fine education, either being home schooled by a tutor or being educated at public schools. Famous public schools such as Eton (in Berkshire), Harrow (in London) and Fettes College (in Edinburgh) have trained out numerous well-known alumni. When it comes to university, the so-called Oxbridge (Oxford and Cambridge) is often the favorite choice of the upper class. Members of the upper class often speak with the so-called Received Pronunciation, but the younger generation increasingly tend to avoid such accent. Typical upper class sports include horse-racing, fox-hunting (very popular at the old times), rugby (many are members of university and public school rugby

unions), rowing (Oxford Cambridge boat race), and golf.

Upper class men often join private gentleman's clubs, which are said to have originated from coffee houses in the 16th century. The clubs often have a library, lounge, dining room, smoking room, billiard room and card room. In the past, gentlemen gathered there discussing politics and exchanging views on current affairs. After graduation from Oxbridge, upper class young men would seek for membership of such clubs first. This tradition continues even till today; it costs a large sum of fees and sometimes takes many years for a gentleman to be finally granted membership, for there is often a long waiting list.

In politics, the upper class holds right wing opinions. They almost always vote for the conservative party and tend to have ties with them. They often support policies and activities that are in line with their own interests, for example, tax cuts, fox hunting, and maintaining land ownership for the upper class etc.

Upper class families usually live in large old mansions with well-maintained, beautiful gardens and a stable. Many employees are hired to maintain these houses, including one or several butler, maid, gardener etc. Today quite a few of the upper class houses are opened to the public and a fee is charged for each visitor. There are about 500 such places in England, which are called "stately homes of England". In Scotland, they are still being called "a castle" as they were in the past. Many upper class families possess more than one house, perhaps one in the city, one in the countryside and even one abroad.

In the 19th century bowler hat was very popular among the upper class, but this is no longer the fashion today. The upper class clothing changes with fashion. The most prevalent clothing now is perhaps a smart suit.

It is hard to tell what things in particular are typical upper class food, for it also changes frequently. It is said that whatever the working class cannot have easily is often upper class. Pigeon, for example, has been considered as the upper class meal for quite some time, but now it may have already been substituted by other food. The upper class food often loses their status as they are mass-produced immediately after being popular. Caviar and champagne were traditional upper-class items and still are to some extent.

The Middle Class

The middle class is defined as the socioeconomic class lying above the working class and below the upper class. Representing a major section of British population, the middle class includes landowners, professionals, industrialists, highly skilled laborers and lower and middle management.

In 1976, Patrick Hutber in his book *The Decline and Fall of the Middle Class and how it can Fight Back* said the question "who are the middle classes? " has never received a satisfactory answer. Hutber believes that motivation — "virtues, aspirations and attitudes" is the key quality that distinguishes the middle class from all the others. He observed that the middle class tends to save for the future, let go immediate pleasure for future security and long-term benefits, and rely on their own endeavors to improve their lives. In addition, he maintained that there were fewer people in Britain who were middle class than the number who viewed themselves as such.

What Hutber argued might be true during the 1970s; however, things have changed to a large extent in the 21st century. Those fine qualities of the middle class proposed by Hutber are somewhat abandoned, although they are still visible in some ways. What's more, there has been a trend in recent

years that more British consider themselves as the middle class. According to a survey by the Future Foundation in the UK in 2006, forty-three per cent of the 1,000 people surveyed said they were middle class, compared with thirty per cent of people in 1966. Among the builders questioned, thirty-six per cent regarded themselves as being middle class. This change was commented as a good thing for society by economists, for more people regarding themselves as middle class meant "more people with wider horizons". In all societies, middle class values are the backbone of society and provide the skilled professionals and administrators who run the country.

As found out by the survey, the middle classes attach great importance to education. They are usually educated at a private or good state school, preferably followed by university. The sports they play often require expensive equipment, special clothing or extensive training and practice, such as golf and tennis. Besides, it has become a common practice that middle class families go on holidays in foreign countries for a few times each year. Similar to their upper class counterparts, the middle classes also enjoy formal state ceremonies, such as the Opening of Parliament by the Queen, or the spectacular ceremony celebrating Royal jubilees. Middle classes also hold important social events in great style such as a wedding or a ball for one's daughter who is about to make her formal debut in society. This used to be the upper class custom and now has been picked up by the middle classes as well.

The Working Class

Traditionally, the working class refers to those employed in lower-ranking jobs, with little skill, little education, and low wages. However, nowadays the working class in the UK may seem quite differently.

According to the survey mentioned above, most of the respondents — about fifty-three per cent regarded themselves as the working class. What's more, the survey revealed that about 2.67 million people considered themselves working-class even though they were among the top 20 per cent of richest Britons (about 500,000 British who earn more than £100,000 a year).

In 2007, the annual British Social Attitudes survey from the National Centre for Social Research found out that fifty-seven per cent of adults in the UK claimed to be the working class. This number has gone far beyond the number of people belonging to the working class, if measured by their occupations — only thirty-one per cent of people were employed in the traditional "blue collar" occupations, according to the survey.

And it is also reported that the number of people going to university or college from what was traditionally thought to be the working class backgrounds has increased steadily over the years. Meanwhile, many university degree holders still regard themselves as working class.

The life and culture of the working class are shown by the TV soaps such as *Coronation Street* (longest running television soap opera) which displays the way of life in the northeast of England, and *Eastenders* (one of the most popular shows) which describes the domestic and professional lives of people living around London's East End. Other TV shows favored by the working class include the most successful prime time show — *X Factor* and the more recent *Britain's Got Talent*.

As portrayed by the soap operas, working classes do have their likes and dislikes. They often go to local pubs after work, join the working men's clubs, watch performances by brass bands, pay visits to betting shops and bingo halls, and stay loyal to their favorite soccer teams. In addition, a working class man is not supposed to do things that step out of the line. It is not a common thing for working classes to join the local fox hunt (which is considered upper class), visit a smart local health clinic (which is

regarded as middle class) or support Rugby Union instead of Rugby League.

II. Social Problems

By reading, watching and listening to the news reports from British newspapers, TV and radio, one may come up with a long list of social problems in the 21st century UK, including poverty, drug abuse, binge drinking, homelessness, child abuse, school discipline, vandalism, lone parenting and divorce etc. The common feature of all these problems is that they are all public issues that attract wide range of attention. However, these problems differ to some extent in scale, influence and the public responses they elicit in return. The following texts will mainly discuss four most important social problems in the UK at present.

Poverty

What is poverty? This concept has been defined in many different ways. Read the following descriptions about poverty:

"Poverty is hunger. Poverty is lack of shelter. Poverty is being sick and not being able to see a doctor. Poverty is not having access to school and not knowing how to read. Poverty is not having a job, is fear for the future, living one day at a time. Poverty is losing a child to illness brought about by unclean water. Poverty is powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom." — the World Bank Organization

"Poverty is defined relative to the standards of living in a society at a specific time. People live in poverty when they are denied an income sufficient for their material needs and when these circumstances exclude them from taking part in activities which are an accepted part of daily life in that society."— Scottish Poverty Information Unit

A more common definition is that poverty refers to the state of not having enough money to afford basic human needs in food, clothing, shelter and health. According to this definition, poverty is mainly measured by incomes or consumption levels. A person is considered poor if his or her income or consumption level falls below the minimum level necessary to meet basic needs. This minimum level is often called the poverty threshold or poverty line, which varies across time and societies. Therefore, different poverty thresholds are found in practice among different countries, which are meant to suit various levels of economic development, social norms and values. The "one dollar a day" line — at 1993 purchasing power parity, for instance, is the international poverty line adopted by the World Bank in studies of the extent of poverty in countries around the world.

Two other concepts — absolute poverty and relative poverty are also discussed frequently when it comes to poverty. Absolute poverty measures the number of people living below a certain income threshold or the number of households unable to afford certain basic goods and services. In comparison, relative poverty measures the extent to which a household's financial resources falls below an average income threshold for the economy. In other words, it refers to the condition of having fewer resources or less income than others within a society or country or compared to worldwide averages.

In the case of UK, relative poverty applies to those households where annual income (including all benefits) is below 60 per cent (sometimes 50 per cent) of the median income after housing costs. This

measure is extensively used by the UK government as well as researchers in the UK and EU.

In 2005/6, the 60 per cent threshold was worth:

108 per week for single adult with no dependent children;

186 per week for a couple with no dependent children;

223 per week for a single adult with two dependent children;

£301 per week for a couple with two dependent children.

According to this measure, between 2005 and 2006 nearly 13 million people live in poverty in the UK — the proportion is one in five of the total population. In specific:

3.8 million children in the UK are living in poverty;

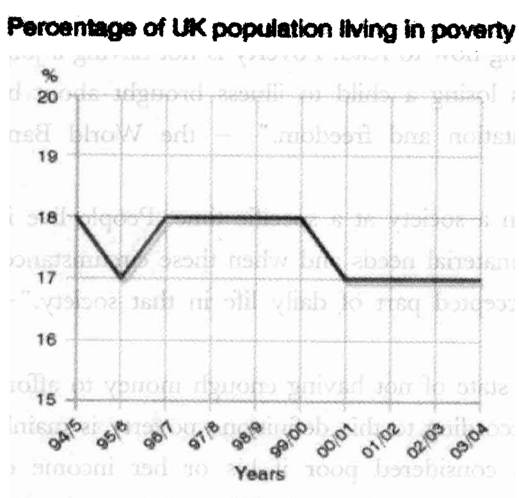
2.2 million pensioners in the UK are living in poverty;

7.2 million working age adults in the UK are living in poverty;

70% of Bangladeshi children in the UK are poor;

Women are the majority in the poorest groups.

(Statistics from: Oxfam GB)



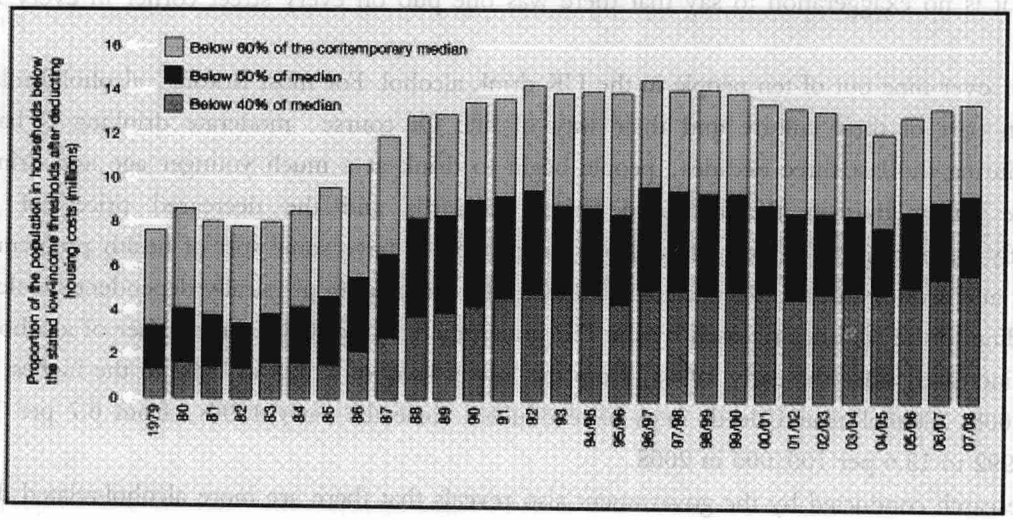
What's more, research has also found that London has the highest proportion of people living in poverty than any other region in the country. Compared with other European nations, there is a higher proportion of British population living in relative poverty than that in most other EU countries — only 6 nations have a higher rate than the UK.

Living in poverty may affect everything for an individual including the kind of education one will receive, chances of getting a job and even the age one can expect to live to. Statistics from Oxfam suggest that men growing up in poverty are 2.97 times more likely to be unemployed than men not in poverty. By the age of school education, poor children are already falling behind middle-class children. Babies born to single mothers and parents from working-class backgrounds are more likely to have low weights at birth than those born to middle-class couples. Infant deaths are 50 per cent more likely to occur in working class families. A child born in the poorer Calton area of Glasgow has a life expectancy of 54, whilst those born in the more affluent Lenzie — North area of the same city have a life expectancy of 82.

Drug Abuse

Britain has one of the most serious drug problems in Europe and drug-related crime costs more than £13 billion a year in England and Wales. According to the research conducted by the UK Drug Policy Commision in 2007, the UK has the highest levels of drug addiction and multi-drug consumption and the second-highest rate of drug-related deaths in Europe. In recent years, the general trend is that drug users are becoming younger and drug-related crimes are on the rise. About one quarter of 26 to 30-year-olds in Britain have tried Class A drugs such as heroin and cocaine and around 45 per cent of British young

Figure 1: Number of people in low-income households

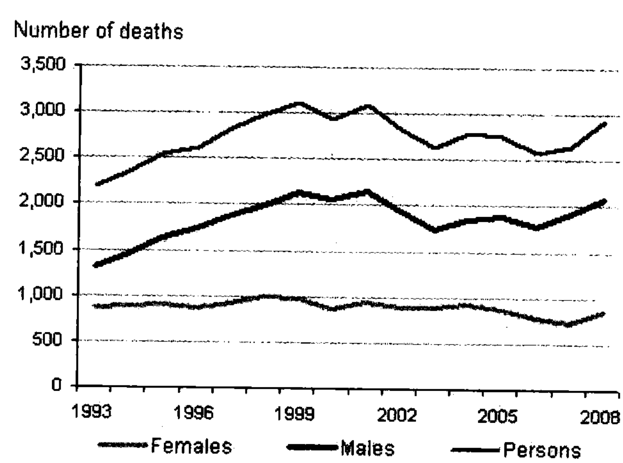


people have used cannabis. And more than 320,000 addicts commit crimes and about two thirds of those arrested are guilty of mugging, burglary, robbery, shoplifting or car theft.

The latest UN report in 2009 revealed that nearly half of schoolchildren in the UK have smoked cannabis by the age of 16 — representing the highest percentage in Europe. About fourty-four per cent of British young people between 15 and 16 years old admit using drug before, compared with fewer than 10 per cent in Greece, Sweden and Norway.

Drug use in Britain has beome so common that it turns into a main feature of British life as claimed by many research. The majority of young people have contact with drugs and many are drug users. The drug problems in the UK invovle not only large number of people of occasional drug use, but also the relatively small number of people who are dependent on Class A drugs, especially heroin and cocaine. In 2008, overall hospital admissions to treat dug-induced poisoning or mental problems doubled from 19,000 to more than 38,000 over one decade. Hospital admissions among teenagers rose up to 402 from 272 in 1997.

Figures from the National Office of Statistics show that the number of male drug poisoning related deaths in 2008 was 2,075, an increase of 8 per cent compared with 2007, which was also the highest number since 2001. Similarly, the number of female deaths also rose by 17 per cent compared with 2007, reaching 853 in 2008.



Deaths related to drug poisoning, England and Wales, 1993-2008

Alcohol misuse

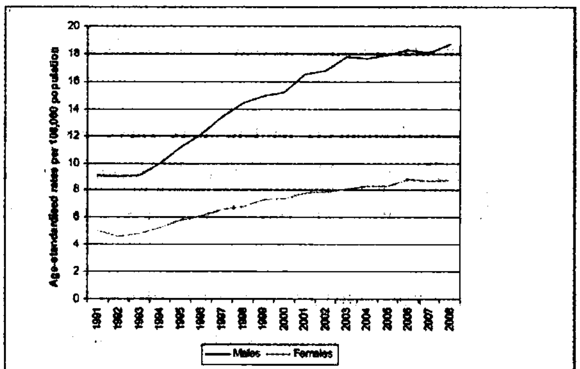
The love of alcohol in Britain could be traced back to Chaucer's time when ale was the most popular drink in the country. Britain was

believed to have more bars or pubs than any other country in the world until the mid-twentieth century. Therefore, it is no exaggeration to say that there was one pub on every street corner in every town in England.

Today, over nine out of ten people in the UK drink alcohol. For most Britons, alcohol-drinking has always been part of their culture and their way of life. Of course, moderate drinking is harmless; however, during the last three decades, people begin to drink at a much younger age and drink more than before partly due to the increased living standards and the decreased prices of alcohol. Consequently, about one in three men and one in six women have some sort of health problem caused by alcohol, and around one in fifteen men and one in fifty women are physically dependent on alcohol.

According to the statistics released by the UK government early 2010, the number of alcohol-related deaths has increased since the early 1990s, from the lowest level of 4,023 in 1992 to the highest level of 9,031 in 2008. Alcohol-related death rates have doubled since the early 1990s, from 6.7 per 100,000 people in 1992 to 13.6 per 100,000 in 2008.

The research conducted by the government also reveals that there are more alcohol-related deaths in males than females. The rate of male deaths has more than doubled over the period from 9.1 per 100,000 in 1991 to 18.7 per 100,000 in 2008. There have been steadier increases in female rates, rising from 5.0 per 100,000 in1991 to 8.7 in 2008, less than half the rate for males. In 2008, males accounted for approximately two-thirds of the total number of alcohol-related deaths. There were 5,999 deaths in men and 3,032 in women.



Alcohol-related death rates by sex, United Kingdom, 1991-2008

Since the last decade, binge drinking (BD) in the UK has gradually become prevalent among young people and seems to be a distinctive characteristic of the British drinking culture. Binge drinking refers to the consumption of excessive amounts of alcohol within a limited period of time. Though it is defined in various ways, a popular definition of binge drinking in the UK is the consumption of 50 per cent or more of the daily maximum amount of alcohol as suggested by the government. In 1995, the Department of Health issued guidelines which recommended a maximum daily alcohol intake of 3-4 and 2-3 units for men and women respectively. The percentage of alcohol by volume (ABV) is used to indicate the strength of an alcoholic drink. One unit equals to approximately 8 g (or 10 ml) of pure alcohol, despite the amount of liquid for dilution. Studies in 2005 have found out that 23 per cent of adult males and 9 per cent of adult females in Britain (about 5.9 million people in total) engaged in BD.

Given the distinct drinking culture in the UK, alcohol is often consumed in a very rapid fashion, which leads to drunkenness easily. In many British social circles, especially among young people, there is also a certain degree of peer pressure to get drunk during a night out. These factors account for the rising cost of BD and the increasing number of people engaged in it. It is estimated that about £20 billion in Britain was spent on binge drinking in the year of 2003. According to the the definition of 5-drink, 30-days, about fifty-four per cent of fifteen to sixteen years olds bing drink in the UK, which is the fourth

highest in Europe and fourty-six per cent report intoxication in the past thirty days.

This culture has become a serious problem or "social ill", as being called by the media, for binge drinking is closely related to violent, aggressive and anti-social behavior. Alcohol contributes partly to 30 per cent of sexual offences, 33 per cent of burglaries and 50 per cent of street crimes in the UK.

About 70 per cent of people admitted to Accident and Emergency departments, which assess and treat patients with serious injuries and illnesses, between midnight and 5 am on weekends are alcohol-related. Men are found more likely to commit or experience alcohol-related violence; meanwhile women are at increased risk of sexual assaults. These all present great challenges on the overall stability the British society and cause significant expenses on governmental organs, such as the National Health Service, Police, Probation Service, Prison Service and the Courts.

Homelessness

Homelessness, also called sleeping rough, refers to the condition in which people have no regular house or dwelling for various reasons, for example, they cannot afford, pay for or maintain regular, safe and adequate housing or residence. Homeless people include those who sleep at night in a homeless shelter, in an institution that provides temporary residence, or in a public or private place which is not intended for use as a regular sleeping accommodation for people.

In the 19th century when industrialization made people move in large numbers from the countryside to towns and cities for work, urban areas became overcrowded, living conditions deteriorated and homelessness began to draw the attention of the British government. Consequently, work houses were built and the Poor Law, which is considered as the first social welfare legislation in the UK, was introduced. At the same time, trusts such as the Peabody, Guinness were established to provide housing for workers and the poor. Housing policy remained more or less the same until council houses were built at a large scale in Britain after the First World War; however, in 1960s housing shortage became serious and homeless people increased, due to the population growth and the clearance of urban slums. The Homeless Persons Act in 1977 required local authorities to provide accommodation for "unintentionally" homeless people who were in priority need.

In the 1980s, public spending on housing was reduced, for the government introduced policies that encouraged home ownership and house renting from the private sector. As interest rates increased in the early 1990s, many people were unable to meet their increasing mortgage repayments, leading to repossession, eviction and homelessness. The past decade witnessed the escalating house prices, which led to less affordable homes and increasing demand on social housing.

In recent years, more and more voluntary organizations were established to help homeless people; and homeless legislations with different strategies and policies in dealing with homelessness were also enacted in different parts of the UK.

However, it is reported that the UK still has one of the highest levels of homelessness in Europe with more than four people per 1,000 estimated to be homeless.

In 2004, it is estimated by the British voluntary organization "Crisis" that some 380,000 people in Britain are without a home, almost equal to the population of Manchester, a major city in the country. And this number was said to rise possibly to one million by 2020 if current trends continue. In the same year, BBC reported that in England alone, about 100,810 families were homeless and lived in

accommodation arranged by local councils under the homeless laws.

What's more, Crisis also points out in its report *Hidden Homelessness: Britain's Invisible City* that "there are much more hidden homeless people than is officially recognized". A large number of people are hidden homeless; although they do not sleep on the streets, they stay in temporary accommodation of various types instead. And living in temporary accommodation tends to have negative influence on health, education and prospects especially for children.

According to its estimation, in the UK about 75,000 people stay regularly in bed and breakfast lodgings, 10,000 are squatters, 220,000 share overcrowded accommodation with friends or family. The cost of such kind of "hidden homelessness" is about £1.4 billion each year.

With the soaring price of housing in recent years, homelessness is about to increase further. MORI Social Research Institute in 2002 has suggested that more than one in five people in Britain struggled to pay their rent or mortgage because of financial insecurity and the high cost of housing. Rising house prices and interest rates may lead to mortgage defaults and house repossessions, which will make more people become homeless in the UK.

Homelessness may be caused by a combination of factors — personal reasons, family backgrounds as well as social causes. Personal reasons that contribute to homelessness include drug and alcohol misuse, lack of qualifications, lack of social support, debts — especially mortgage or rent arrears, poor physical and mental health, relationship breakdown, and involvement in crime at an early age. Family backgrounds such as family breakdown and disputes, sexual and physical abuse in childhood or adolescence, having parents with drug or alcohol problems and previous experience of family homelessness are more likely to cause homelessness.

Social causes of homelessness are often beyond the control of the individual or family concerned, which include unemployment, poverty, a lack of affordable housing, housing policies, the structure and administration of housing benefit and wider policy developments such as the closure of long-stay psychiatric hospitals.

Research has revealed the three main reasons for becoming homeless identified by the homeless themselves:

Parents, friends or relatives unwilling or unable to accommodate

Relationship breakdown with partner

Loss of private dwelling

However, these reasons are not the fundamental causes to homelessness, but the catalysts that made people seek assistance. For many people who lose homes, there is no single event that leads to the sudden loss. Homelessness, however, resulted from a number of unresolved problems accumulating over time. If these underlying problems remain unresolved, it may recur from time to time.

To solve these problems, not only those individuals themselves should work hard, but support from public organizations, friends and family as well as long-term policy solutions including changes in the housing benefit system, the building of more affordable homes etc. are needed as well.

A study commissioned by Shelter — a British housing and homelessness charity found the reasons most frequently given for being homeless were:

relationship breakdown: 41 per cent

being asked to leave the family home: 28 per cent

drug and alcohol problems: 31 per cent and 28 per cent respectively

leaving prison: 25 per cent

mental health problems: 19 per cent

other: for example, eviction, problems with benefits payments

People being interviewed, on average, identified two to three factors contributing to their homelessness, which shows that homelessness as a complex issue cannot be attributed to one single factor.

Glossary

socioeconomic 社会经济的
anthropologist 人类学家
hierarchical 按等级划分的,等级制度的
feudal 封建制度的
ranking 地位,排名
caste 社会阶层,社会等级
bound 受……约束的
headgear 头戴之物
cap 便帽,制服帽
innate 天生的,与生俱来的
breeding 教养
blur 模糊不清
title 官衔,头衔;权利,资格
refuse 废弃物,垃圾
intermediate 中等的,中级的;之间的,中间的
subsistence 勉强维持生活
afflict 折磨,使痛苦
insecurity 不安全,无保障
median 中间值的,中间的
vulnerable 脆弱的,易受伤害的
disproportionately 不成比例地,不相称地
aristocrat 贵族
gentry 绅士阶层,上流社会人士
rugby 橄榄球运动
billiard 台球
mansion 公馆,宅第
butler 男管家
bowler hat 圆顶礼帽
caviar 鱼子酱
aspiration 渴望,抱负,志向
backbone 支柱,骨干,基础
jubilee (尤指 25 周年或 50 周年的)周年纪念,周年庆祝
debut 首次亮相,初次登台
portray 描绘,描画,描写
prime 主要的,首要的
elicit 引出,探出
threshold 门槛,门口
cannabis 大麻制品
mugging 拦路抢劫罪
burglary 入室盗窃罪
drug-induced 毒品引发的
ale 麦芽啤酒
moderate 适度的,中等的
intake 摄取量
drunken 醉的
intoxication 喝醉,陶醉
repossession 收回
eviction 驱逐,赶出,逐出
escalating 不断恶化的,加剧的
squatter 擅自占用他人房子的人
default 违约(尤指未偿付债务)
arrear 逾期欠款
catalyst 催化剂
underlying 根本的
recur 再发生,反复出现
commission 正式委托

Cultural Notes

1. **Coronation Street** known as *Corrie*, *Corror or The Street* is a British prime time soap opera set in the fictional town of Weatherfield, four miles in either direction from the city of Manchester. Created by Tony Warren, *Coronation Street* is the longest running and most watched British soap opera. *Coronation Street* was first broadcast on 9 December 1960, made by Granada Television (now ITV Studios) and broadcast in all regions of ITV almost throughout its existence. In September 2010 it will become the world's longest running television soap opera currently on the air.
2. **EastEnders** is a long-running, popular British television soap opera, first broadcast in the United Kingdom on BBC One on 19 February 1985. It currently ranks as one of the most watched shows in the United Kingdom. *EastEnders* storylines examine the domestic and professional lives of the people who live and work in the fictional London Borough of Walford in the East End of London. The series primarily centres around the residents of Albert Square, a Victorian square of terraced houses, and its neighbouring streets, namely Bridge Street, Turpin Road and George Street, and which encompasses a pub, street market, night club, community centre, cafe and various small businesses, in addition to a park and allotments.
3. **The East End (of London)** also known as the East End is the area of London, east of the medieval walled City of London and north of the River Thames. Since the late 19th century, this area had become overcrowded with poor people and immigrants when the population of London expanded rapidly. Later on, other major constructions such as St Katharine Docks and the central London railway termini have caused the clearance of former slums, resulting in more people moving into the East End. Over the century, the East End become synonymous with poverty, overcrowding, disease and criminality.
4. **Working Men's Club** is a type of private social club founded in the 19th century in industrial areas of Great Britain, particularly the North of England, to provide recreation and education for working class men and their families. There are 3,000 working men's clubs in the UK.
5. **The X Factor** is a television show originating in the United Kingdom. It is a singing competition, now held in many countries. Contestants are aspiring pop singers drawn from public auditions. The title of the program refers to the undefinable "something" that makes for star quality. The prize is usually a recording contract. The format creator is Simon Cowell who also judges and mentors on the UK series. The UK version is responsible for the launch of the internationally successful singer Leona Lewis. As of February 2010, there have been 49 winners of *The X Factor* around the world.
6. **Britain's Got Talent** is a British television show on ITV and part of the Got Talent series. Presented by British celebrity presenters Ant & Dec, singers, dancers, comedians, variety acts, and other performers compete against each other for audience support. The winner of each series receives £100,000 and is given the opportunity to perform at the Royal Variety Performance in front of members of the Royal Family, including the Queen. The first series of the talent show began on 9 June 2007, and was broadcast daily with a live final on 17 June 2007, in which Paul Potts won. Street-dancer George Sampson went on to win the second series of the show on 31 May 2008. The third series began on 11 April 2009, and ended on 30 May 2009, with Diversity winning the competition,

while Susan Boyle, whose audition performance of "I Dreamed a Dream" sparked an Internet sensation, ended up in second place.

7. **Rugby League and Rugby Union** Historically, Rugby League was in Britain the working man's game. It was professional at its top layers (because the miners lost a day's pay playing on a Saturday). Union was the game for the middle classes and was amateur up to including national level (they worked Mondays to Fridays and didn't need the money). Today, this is no longer the case. Most of the laws of Rugby Union and Rugby League are similar, though there are certain differences. For instance, rugby union has 15 players while rugby league has 13. Union attaches great emphasis on scrums and line-outs. League has both but they are incidental to the game. And usually a League team has 6 tackles to score a try before it goes to the opposition. In a word, League is a more running game while Union has more set pieces. The differences between the two are getting less, for Union has changed its laws radically over the past decade.
8. **Accident and Emergency Department** is a hospital or primary care department that provides initial treatment to patients with a broad spectrum of illnesses and injuries, some of which may be life-threatening and require immediate attention. All A&E departments throughout the United Kingdom are financed and managed by the NHS of each constituent country (England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland). As with most other NHS services, emergency care is provided to all, both resident citizens and those not ordinarily resident in the UK, free at the point of need and regardless of any ability to pay.

Questions for Discussion

1. How is class defined? What are the common criteria in determining social classes?
2. How are British people classified based on social classes?
3. Is today's Britain a classless society? Why or why not?
4. How people belonging to different social classes differ from one another in their behaviors, hobbies, and lifestyles etc.?
5. What are the differences between absolute poverty and relative poverty?
6. How do you think can poverty affect people's lives?
7. What are the serious consequences caused by excessive drinking?
8. What does "hidden homelessness" mean? What are the major causes for homelessness?

Supplementary Reading

"Social Evils" and "Social Problems" in Britain, 1904 — 2008

Some changes of the later twentieth century

A central focus of this paper so far has been on ways in which certain "social evils", long seen by the lay public as menacing but inescapable facts of life, came to be translated by social investigators into

clearly defined "social problems", which in turn became the basis of remedial social policies. This had been an important feature of the culture of public life in Britain (partly, though not wholly, transcending class and ideological divisions) throughout the earlier twentieth century. The 1960s brought a number of fundamental changes in this process, that subtly transformed ways in which "social evils" were conceived and understood. One such change was that the increasing professionalisation of social work, planning and the social sciences meant that there was an increasing divergence between "social evils" as perceived by policy "experts" and those encountered by citizens in the street (a divergence particularly apparent in such complex and conflict-ridden areas of policy as urban redevelopment and the treatment of problem families, drug addiction and the mentally ill).

Social changes and opposing ideologies

Another important trend was that from the early 1960s onwards (in marked contrast to most other major European economies), income-support policies in Britain gradually shifted away from the post-war "universalist" model of contributory insurance and reverted back to the means-tested system inherited from the Poor Law. This meant that social benefits were increasingly targeted not on wider contractual entitlement, but on selective relief of social "need" (a shift that severely disadvantaged the skilled and 'regular' working classes by comparison with more marginal groups). This trend coincided with a much more dramatic and conspicuous development in the shape of an emerging revolution in sexual, interpersonal and gender norms, which was to transform social attitudes in Britain over many subsequent decades and (in sharp contrast with the era of the Victorian Poor Law) was to penetrate deeply into relations between child-bearing, parenthood and co-habitation on the one hand and the system of state welfare on the other. The arrival in Britain of large numbers of immigrants from a great diversity of cultural backgrounds, whose family structures ranged from the ultra-conservative to the ultra "postmodern", likewise profoundly challenged long-established British social perceptions and norms. And, perhaps more fundamentally, the later 1960s and 1970s were to bring about a tidal erosion in the support of many British people (often in direct opposition to their stated ideological values) for the public-service/welfare-state/mixed-economy model of government and society that had prevailed in Britain since the end of the Second World War. As the pound lost its value, as industrial relations worsened, as oil prices tripled and as British staple industries collapsed in the face of foreign competition, powerful ideologies on both left and right increasingly challenged the modest consensual idealism of the post-war era. Such critics called on the one side for a much more egalitarian, collectivised "workers' state", based on a "fundamental and irreversible shift in the balance of power and wealth", and on the other side for the freeing up of capitalism from state control and the defusing of industrial strife, not by benevolent state paternalism but by monetary stringency and the "discipline of the market".

Industrial relations and Thatcherism

These issues were to be fought out in a long series of industrial battles over the course of the 1970s, and there can be little doubt that to many Britons of all political persuasions at that time the key "social evils" of the epoch were not moral or welfare issues (nor even rising crime rates or immigration) but the mutually reinforcing pressures of "inflation" and bad industrial relations. These battles culminated in the 1978-9 "winter of discontent", when power stations closed down, rubbish rotted in the streets, dead bodies remained unburied, life-saving operations were cancelled and rats were seen in public hospitals for

the first time since the late Victorian era. The result was the election of 1979, which brought to power a government and prime minister committed not just to reduction of government and restoration of markets, but to a fundamental reconceptualisation of what many people understood by the term "social". For Margaret Thatcher, a devout disciple of the liberal economist and philosopher F. A. Hayek, "society" was not a disembodied force or entity in its own right, but simply the sum of autonomous human individuals (together with "natural" units such as the family) and their multiple interactions. Post-war public ownership of the "commanding heights of the economy" was now dismissed as a thinly veiled form of protectionism, while economic inequality, far from being a prime "social evil" (as many postwar Britons had come to believe), was seen as the indispensable motor of efficiency and higher output. In such a vision social welfare services and protection against poverty were by no means deemed unnecessary, but — in stark contrast to the "universalist" aspirations of the post-war era — they were seen as needing to be targeted on a diminishing minority, who for various personal reasons would be unable to share in the overall maximisation of wealth.

Such ideas were to fuel government social and economic programmes in Britain over the next three decades, with "New Labour" after 1997 honouring Mrs. Thatcher with the sincerest form of flattery. They were never imposed with the out-and-out thoroughness that many neo-liberal theorists had hoped for, but nevertheless they transformed many aspects of British economic and social relations to an extent that would have been unimaginable in the post-war years (when it had been assumed by many thinkers right across the political spectrum that the era of free-market capitalism had gone forever). Nevertheless, despite generating deep and sometimes violent disturbances (such as the Brixton and Toxteth riots of 1981 and the Miners' Strike of 1984-5), they clearly struck a deep chord in British society, as witnessed by the fact that Margaret Thatcher won three general elections, and her successor won a fourth. Some Thatcherite policies were, initially at least, widely popular, particularly the sale of council houses to sitting tenants, the restraints on inflation and the curbs on wild-cat strikes. The full impact of Thatcherism on the values and structures of British society in the later twentieth century still awaits serious historical assessment (with many books written about the period being manifestly polemical and partisan).

Nevertheless, since many voices within the recent surge of concern about "social evils" directly invoked and blamed certain Thatcherite themes, it is worth trying to pinpoint more precisely some aspects of what that impact actually was.

Modernisation, globalisation and consumerism

One consequence of Thatcherism (and subsequently of Blairism) was that many trends which had been slowly evolving over the previous quarter of a century now raced forward with unprecedented speed. Thus the "commodification" of public services, the shift from a "social insurance" to a means-tested system of welfare and the castration of the powers of local government had all been gestating under the regimes of Macmillan, Wilson and Heath, but the sheer pace and scale of such developments under Thatcher had the effect of transforming them from changes of degree to changes in kind. At the same time many aspects of British local and national culture appeared to become far less cohesive and distinctive than in any earlier period of history. This was not just because of "modernisation", but because the closure or foreign takeover of many major industries, the free movement of labour and capital across international boundaries, the disappearance of ancient provincial centres under car parks and shopping malls and the globalisation of banking and finance were not simply economic variables but forces that

radically transformed the ways in which people thought and lived and even, to some degree, who they actually were. Thus skilled and semi-skilled industrial workers who in 1951 had made up 70 per cent of the adult male employed population in Britain, by the end of the twentieth century were to be a mere 15 per cent, their successors having moved upwards into professions, sideways into marketing and retail or downwards into the ranks of the long-term sick and unemployed. Such a change, for better or worse, inevitably entailed major changes in social relations and in the character of popular culture, not least because such workers had played such an important role in the fraternal, voluntarist, sporting and communitarian culture of Britain earlier in the century. Their transformation inton "consumers", whose main leisure activity (after watching television) was shopping, could scarcely fail to have a far-reaching impact both on personal relations and on wider British life and national culture.

The diseases of prosperity in the twenty-first century

Social theorists and moralists throughout human history, from Aristotle and the prophets of the Old Testament, through to figures like John Ruskin, R. H. Tawney, and Mahatma Ghandhi in more modern times, have warned against the dangers of affluence and acquisitiveness for their own sake rather than for meeting basic human needs or for public and communal purposes. Many modern economists have treated such warnings with some disdain, as trying to smuggle subjective ethical and spiritual concerns into "value-free" social science (a criticism frequently levied by market economists against the "economics of welfare" school that inspired some of the founders of the welfare state). Ironically, however, the triumph of market principles in public policy over the Thatcher years was to be accompanied by a marked resurgence of interest in such normative questions among mainstream academic economists (including among their number not just the sentimental or journalistic second eleven, but some of the world's greatest practitioners of the discipline, such as Joseph Stiglitz and Amartya Sen). The separating out of the concepts of "wealth", "welfare" and "well-being" as inter-related, but nevertheless distinct, ways of describing human satisfactions has increasingly figured in recent economics literature, together with attempts to measure subjective as well as objective indicators of these conditions. Likewise, qualitative as well as quantitative notions of consumption have crept back into the discussion of such concepts (in conscious echo of John Ruskin's once-famous maxim, "there is no wealth but life").

Unhappy affluence

Recent research by both economists and economic historians into such questions in the USA, Britain and elsewhere has produced some surprising and suggestive empirical results. One unsurprising point (indeed wholly predictable from a Hayekian/Thatcherite perspective) is that 'inequality' appears to have been universally more efficient than "equality" in generating a level of economic growth that initially makes possible a system of redistributive "social welfare" of any kind. Nevertheless, recent case studies have suggested that this ceases to be true whenever a certain level of prosperity is reached and wherever private "affluence" has become a strategic device for keeping an economy going, rather than a means of satisfying real human needs. Furthermore, mounting evidence has suggested that affluence tends positively to undermine the pleasures of consumption and to generate numerous secondary disorders, such as boredom, obesity, addiction, antisocial behaviour and even marriage breakdown (all of which add greatly to the overhead costs of keeping a society going). It also tends to subvert normal rationality and prudence, and above all singularly fails in the utilitarian objective of making people happy. Thus, cross-

national studies of "subjective well-being" (a concept derived from the pioneering early studies of Seebohm Rowntree) have found that such an entity varies widely across different countries and cultures, with only minimal reference to levels of income. No significant improvement in subjective well-being appears to have occurred, for example, in such prosperous economies as Japan, France and the USA since shortly after the end of the Second World War.

Pursuit of "consumption" creates new social evils

Such findings seem directly relevant to the history of the ebb and flow of anxieties about "social evils", and in particular to the construction of such evils in Britain at the present time. The Joseph Rowntree Foundation's public consultation exercise in the summer of 2007 occurred at the high peak of an unprecedented investment and housing boom, and at the end of a quarter-century of market-oriented economic management by both Conservative and Labour governments in Britain. Over the course of that period real incomes in Britain had risen by nearly 70 per cent, inflation had reached a historic low and standard rates of income tax had fallen by a third. And, though public services had stagnated in the Thatcher years, since 1997 government spending on health services, education and various forms of income support (including, in particular, the targeting of poverty among young children) had virtually doubled. How, then, did it come about that respondents to the 2007 JRF consultation voiced unanimously pessimistic concern about such issues as social, communal and family breakdown, an epidemic of drug and alcohol abuse, persistent and worsening poverty and inequality, widespread crime, violence and child cruelty, and unsettled and ill-defined apprehensions about race and immigration? (All this, of course, more than a year before the sudden precipitate collapse of the world's national economies into cataclysmic recession.) Orthodox economic theorists of a very short generation ago might well have suggested that the JRF respondents were simply "smuggling in" non-economic ethical concerns and that all such problems would solve themselves, if only meddlesome politicians would leave them to be dealt with by the discipline of the market. The new international economics of "affluence" and "well-being", however, points towards a rather different conclusion. It suggests that pursuit of "consumption" as an end in itself, regardless of the "value" of the objects consumed, or of prudent calculation of future needs, may in fact be a powerful generator of personal misery, failure of rational self-discipline, social pathology and economic disorder and decline. Such reflections throw a highly suggestive light, historical as well as theoretical, upon the genesis and character of social evils in the cultural and economic context of the early twenty-first century.

Some comparative historical perspectives

As indicated above, a historical perspective is a useful reminder that anxieties about "social evils" are by no means unique to the present time. It suggests that a comparable sense of moral crisis gripped the public imagination in Britain at least twice during the last century — the first occurring in the aftermath of the Boer War (in circumstances very comparable to the present time), the second generated during the interwar years by mass unemployment. In both cases, these crises were eventually transcended. But this did not happen without a great deal of intellectual effort, serious research and social controversy and conflict (including, some would argue, the fundamental reshaping of economic and social relations in Britain that stemmed from the impact of two world wars).

Little has been said so far, however, about the comparative and international dimension of such crises, either in the past or at the present time. Such an enormous subject can only be touched upon

briefly here. But a few examples may give some indication of how far anxiety about 'social evils' should be seen as part of the wider experience of "modernity" (and more recently "post-modernity"), or merely as evidence of circumstances and attitudes peculiar to Great Britain. Cross-national evidence for the 1900s suggests that the perception of social crisis in Edwardian Britain, though intensely felt by many at the time, was in fact quite mild and minimal by comparison with similar apprehensions in many other industrialising countries. In France and Italy in particular, studies on social questions during the fin-de-siècle epoch were far more deeply obsessed with visions of a dangerous "underclass", of hereditary biological "degeneration" and of imminent social breakdown than was ever the case in turn-of the-century Britain. And, despite the torrent of anxiety about the condition of "darkest England" and "outcast London", many measurable symptoms of social pathology, such as crime, illegitimacy, prostitution and suicide, were very much more muted in Britain than on the continent of Europe. (Indeed, the American sociologist Abraham Flexner described Edwardian London as being "like a great open-air cathedral" by comparison with the squalor, misery, violence and immorality of Paris, Vienna and Berlin.) Commentators in the United States during the 1900s likewise remarked upon the boredom, rootlessness, alienation and estrangement experienced by residents of great American cities, to an extent unknown at that time anywhere in Britain (though predicted by some as the desolate future for all modern societies). A generation later, Britain, as the most heavily industrialised country, suffered far more prolonged mass unemployment than elsewhere in Europe, yet by comparison with much of the continent, British society remained a haven of social integration and order throughout the interwar years. Moreover, both in the 1900s and in the 1930s British social relations were glued together by very dense networks of voluntary organisations — religious, occupational, sporting, hobbies-based or simply sociable in character —that, despite depression and unemployment, were seen by many as the distinctive essence and social cement of British national culture (often compared, for example, with France of the Third Republic, where all such organisations were frowned upon, unless specifically regulated and licensed by the state). And in both decades Britain had by far the smallest professional police forces per head of population of any major Western country. The vast majority of Britons, so one authority had claimed in 1912, had little need of "policing" in the continental sense. Instead they largely "policed themselves", either through their clubs, societies and other self-governing organisations, or through the inner discipline of the "Anglo-Saxon conscience".

Loss of British community strengths

Social indicators and other historical evidence over the most recent decades, however, tell a rather different story. They suggest not that Britain had become more like other nations but that some of the distinctively "communitarian" features of earlier British historic culture - which had militated against many of the more dire social evils earlier experienced on the continent -may have declined or been irrevocably lost. Thus, although the British people were still extensive supporters of charities and voluntary movements, by the end of the twentieth century this had become a predominantly passive activity, mainly involving payment of monetary subscriptions to organisations run by professional fund-raisers and managers. Sport likewise, formerly the vital epicentre of a nationwide local associational life (including mass "amateur" games playing), had been transformed into a largely commercial and "spectator" pastime — a trend not helped by the mass sale of school playing fields or the ban on "competitive games" by teachers' unions (two policies inflicted simultaneously on the nation's schoolchildren in the later 1980s).

Similarly, although nearly 80 per cent of the population at the start of the twenty-first century claimed to have some kind of religious belief, the corporate and associational aspects of religious practice had steeply declined, transforming Britain — in outward observance at least — from being one of the most religious into one of the least religious cultures throughout Western Europe. And, possibly as a consequence of waning religious sanctions, the self-regulating "Anglo-Saxon conscience" seemed also to be in steep decline, a trend signalled in many quarters by a widely pervasive loss of the sense of "mutual trust" on which Britain's lightly-regulated institutions had so long relied. This took the form on the one hand of a widespread loss of popular confidence in government agencies, public institutions and professional bodies, and on the other hand of a reciprocal lack of trust on the part of government itself, expressed through the escalation of ever more detailed regulatory codes for guiding the public and professional conduct of citizens (a practice long familiar in many continental countries, but hitherto almost unheard of in traditionally 'self-policing' Britain).

Influence of social security system on personal and family life

Moreover, by a strange paradox, the ever-increasing regulation of public and workplace behaviour coincided with ever-increasing libertarianism, diversity and instability in the sphere of personal relations. Such developments in personal life-styles were of course common across the Western world, but there were marked differences in the ways in which they impacted on society. In the 1900s, and again in the 1950s and early 1960s, British society had had the lowest divorce rate, lowest levels of recorded family violence and lowest "illegitimate" birth rate throughout Western Europe, but by the early twenty-first century it had moved close to the top of the comparative league table on all three counts. Moreover, although births of children to unmarried couples were rising from the 1980s at a very similar rate in most of Western Europe, during the year 2000 only in Britain did a majority of children born outside formal wedlock live on a permanent basis in one-parent rather than two-parent families. This was a pattern shaped in part by the fact that most continental social security systems paid generous "universal" family allowances to all settled couples, whereas Britain since the 1960s had gone down the (supposedly more "economical") road of "targeting" benefits on lone mothers according to individual financial need. Likewise Britain by the year 2000 had by far the highest rates of teenage pregnancy in Europe, again reflecting the fact that (as in the USA, where lone motherhood was even more prevalent) the structure of benefits and housing provision privileged single parenthood over the claims of married or permanently cohabiting couples. Such policies bore witness to an admirable concern among British policy-makers of all parties for tackling problems of child poverty. But they may also suggest a lack of official imagination about possible ways of doing this, together with an almost perverse degree of tunnel vision or myopia about possible interaction between social security arrangements and the long-term cultural evolution of personal lifestyles, private choices and structures of family life.

Further Reading

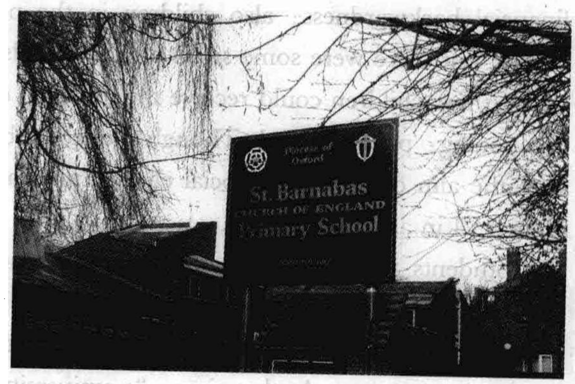
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Useful Websites

1. http://www.sirc.org/
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3. www.socialevils.org.uk

Chapter 11
British Education



导　读
Introduction

英国是一个重视教育的国家，以齐全的教育门类和完备的结构为近代西方教育体制奠定了基础。至今，英国的教育质量在全球范围都享有盛誉，吸引着来自世界各地的学生，并聚集了科学与文化界的精英。英国存在两种并行的教育体制，英格兰、威尔士和北爱尔兰使用相同的教育体制，苏格兰使用另一种体制。英国对所有 5 至 16 岁的儿童实行强制性义务教育，学生可以选择公立或私立这两种不同的学校。多数学生在 18 岁参加全国性 A-level 考试，将近半数的学生有机会进入大学学习，学制三年。本章主要介绍英国的教育体系。

British education has a long history and a well-established tradition. With its full range of subjects and complete structure, British education has won huge international acclaims and has been ranked among the world's best on the ground of its renowned scientific research, education quality as well as the quality of its graduates. In this chapter we will begin by taking a brief look at the history of education in Great Britain. And then the full educational systems will be explored at the primary, secondary and higher levels, covering, for instance, the historically well known grammar schools, the most ancient universities and some newly founded educational institutions.

Ⅰ. History of British Education

Early Forms of Education

British education in the early period, like in many of the European countries, could hardly be separated from religion. Schools of the time were mostly run by churches and monasteries to educate scholars, civil servants and people who were likely to take up pastoral services. The close association between education and religion brought Latin to the forefront of education in the middle ages. Then following the need of trade expansion, which used Latin as the major language of communication across

the Continent, grammar schools were widely founded in Britain where Latin grammar instruction formed a major part of the curriculum. However, education in the early times was purely the reserve of the rich, who could afford to send their sons to grammar schools so as to ensure a prospective advantage from language. Girls could only receive education at home, provided they were lucky enough to have been born in a noble family. The philosophy of educating a girl was largely converse from that of boys: to make a successful housewife for her husband.

The poor on the contrary were largely excluded from such prestigious grammar schools for their financial backwardness; also children in the poor families were the valuable sources of labor for the family. But there were some small parish schools held in the parish churches or song schools at cathedrals where these children could receive the informal education. In addition to such schools, another was worth mentioning: public school. Though named public, it was virtually privately endowed boarding schools with the aim of producing social elites. Eton, as the most widely known public school, was founded by Henry VI in as early as 1440.

Students who have demonstrated great potentials could then continue their study in universities. Oxford, as one of the very first universities in Britain as well as in the world at large, was established in the eleventh century, and only one century later Cambridge was founded. In its birth, a university did not have a campus. At that time "a university was not a physical space but a collection of individuals banded together" to take limited range of classes. Disciplines in the universities of the time were not as diverse and the forms of instruction not so fully developed as they are today, but it is undeniable that those universities had set an intellectual standard for its time and had laid basis for the modern higher education.

Modern System of Education

Real modern education in Britain started with the growth in the number of public schools in the nineteenth century, following a series of revolutions in the areas of industry, politics, and social life. The 1870 Foster's Elementary Education Act brought elementary education to every child and School Boards were established to build more schools nationwide. The boards also helped to provide financial support for the poor children. In the end the nineteenth century, elementary education became free. Later the Education Act 1944 brought the free secondary education to all children by the introduction of the Tripartite System. Under this system, pupils of all social classes were encouraged to attend the state-funded secondary grammar, technical or modern schools respectively on the basis of their performance in an examination named 11-plus. Among those schools, the secondary grammar school was said to prepare candidates for universities, whilst the others were to train technicians and manual workers. In addition to the three types of schools, there gradually came into existence the comprehensive schools and direct grant schools, in response to the call from the public for equal chances in education, preventing students from streaming into strands too early by allotting a direct grant from the ministry of education to independent schools. As a result, school leaving age was further raised and more and more girls and working class pupils received a wider chance of attending higher educations. In 1946/47, the number of pupils at school in England was 4.7 million and it rose to 8.4 million in 1975/76.

Recent Changes

The 1944 Act laid a major framework for education for decades until another radical movement was

made in the enactment of Education Reform Act 1988. This new legislation has several features: the introduction of a national curriculum for pupils aged 5-16, directing the responsibility of deciding what to teach from individual teachers to the central government; the establishment of compulsory national tests (SATS), publishing the results annually to allow schools to compete for pupils and to be compared directly with one another; considerable freedom and flexibility in management was given to individual schools to run their own budgets; a new type of school, city technology college, was set up in inner city areas, specializing in technology, the arts, mathematics and science; and a series of standards in education were finally set up.

The turn of the century saw greater changes continue to take place in Britain. With the slogan: "education, education and education" for the 1997 general election, labor party came into power, bringing about a series of changes and reforms in education. Attention was shifted from the former comprehensive system to caring for each child's ability; higher percentage of GDP was spent on education; more specialist schools were created and the number of such schools grew from 196 in 1997 to 1000 by 2002. Though the results were mixed, the positive effect remains visible: school-leavers decreased and nearly half of them went on to higher education. Successively, the Children Act 2004 led to the over-all welfare for all children, young people and their families in all parts of the United Kingdom, incorporating the needs of disabled children as well.

II. Education Systems in Britain

Within Great Britain there are simultaneously two education systems at work. England, Wales and Northern Ireland adopted the system of National Curriculum. This framework contains English, mathematics, science, technology, physical education and religious education as the core subjects, scheduled for students at different stages. Scotland on the contrary has an independent education and testing system, which emphasizes the breadth of knowledge as opposed to depth employed in the former. There are also two parallel school systems in primary and secondary education, the state sector and the private sector in England. The former is in the majority and is a reflection of the free education. But still there are people in favor of a private or independent school.

Primary Education

Section 7 of the 1996 Education Act of the UK states:

"*The parent of every child of compulsory school age shall cause him to receive efficient full-time education suitable*

(*a*) *to his age, ability and aptitude, and*

(*b*) *to any special educational needs he may have, either by regular attendance at school or otherwise.*"

As previously stated, by law all children between five and sixteen must receive full-time education in Britain. This compulsory stage covers generally the periods of primary and secondary education. A majority of Pupils in the UK, about 94 per cent, are recruited to the public-funded state schools where they do not need to pay fees, whilst the rest chose either to attend some independent fee-paying schools or receive home schooling by suitable means. If a child of school age fails to receive any education and there is not a good reason, his parents will be sued at law.

Same as the situation in China, children before school age normally receive pre-school education provided by child care centers, play grounds, nursery schools and nursery classes (reception) within

primary schools. Such education aims to cultivate children's basic and comprehensive competence in creativity, social abilities, language, and physical development.

Common patterns of compulsory education and key stages

<table>
<tr><th>Age</th><th>Year</th><th>Key stages</th><th colspan="2">Schooling</th></tr>
<tr><td>3</td><td rowspan="2">Nursery</td><td rowspan="3">Foundation Stage</td><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">Pre-school education
(Nursery; Kindergarten; Playground)</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>5</td><td>Reception</td><td rowspan="3">Infant school</td><td rowspan="7">Primary school (State-funded primary school; Private primary School)</td></tr>
<tr><td>6</td><td>Year 1</td><td rowspan="2">Key Stage 1</td></tr>
<tr><td>7</td><td>Year 2</td></tr>
<tr><td>8</td><td>Year 3</td><td rowspan="4">Key Stage 2
National tests in English, maths and science (SATs)</td><td rowspan="4">Junior school</td></tr>
<tr><td>9</td><td>Year 4</td></tr>
<tr><td>10</td><td>Year 5</td></tr>
<tr><td>11</td><td>Year 6</td></tr>
<tr><td>12</td><td>Year 7</td><td rowspan="3">Key Stage 3
National tests in English, Maths and science (SATs)</td><td rowspan="5">Secondary school</td><td rowspan="7">Secondary school (Comprehensive school; Independent school; Sixth form college)</td></tr>
<tr><td>13</td><td>Year 8</td></tr>
<tr><td>14</td><td>Year 9</td></tr>
<tr><td>15</td><td>Year 10</td><td rowspan="2">Key Stage 4 (GCSE)</td></tr>
<tr><td>16</td><td>Year 11</td></tr>
<tr><td>17</td><td>Year 12</td><td rowspan="2">Sixth form (A level, GNVQ, etc)</td><td rowspan="2">Sixth form college</td></tr>
<tr><td>18</td><td>Year 13</td></tr>
</table>

Note: Reception refers to the first year of primary education.
Sixth form is the optional final two years of secondary education when students prepare for their A-level examinations.

Children start primary school normally at five years of age by first of September (exclusive of reception stage). Since the Education Reform Act 1988, all state schools are obliged to follow the national curriculum system, which divides primary education into key stages. Pupils are expected to accomplish varied educational knowledge and skills at each stage. According to the updated system, English, Maths, History, Geography, Science, Art and Design, Design and Technology, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), Music, Physical Education, are taught at primary schools. The main goals of primary education are for children to achieve basic literacy and numeracy and at the same time students could establish the foundations in science, geography, history and other social sciences.

The teaching approaches in British primary schools are typically student-centered and a diversity of methods are used at class to cultivate students' interests. Instead of giving instructions throughout the entire class, teachers tend to leave room for students to reflect, discuss, and work out problems by themselves with the assistance of teachers. School day usually begins at nine o'clock in the morning and ends at 4 o'clock in the afternoon. Alongside classroom education, schools often organize various events and activities such as swimming, theater visits, and field trips. Through these informal ways of learning, students could well build up physical and practical abilities.

The academic year goes from September to July, and is split into three terms by Christmas, Easter and a summer holiday. Most schools require pupils to wear school uniforms. A majority of primary schools are maintained by the local authorities and are monitored by the Department for Children, Schools and Families. School funds mostly come from central government through national taxation in

state schools.

Infant together with junior schools make up the entire primary education in Britain. After the first two years in the infant school, pupils continue their education in key stage two in a junior school for four more years. At the end of the six years of primary education, all pupils have to undertake the national tests, known as Standard Assessment Tests (SATs) in three core subjects, English, Maths, and Science. Teachers are also required to provide teacher assessments in each subject. Pupils of eleven years old are expected at this stage to reach 4 out of 8 in terms of National Curriculum attainment levels.

Aside from the state primary schools, there are also independent schools at primary level in the UK. Unlike the state schools which are mainly financed by tax payers, independent schools are instead funded by tuition charges, gifts, donations etc. Students have to pay a certain amount of fees so as to get enrolled into such schools; yet many of the schools do have strict standards in selecting students. A private school is merely one type of the independent school, though sometimes the two terms are used exchangeably to refer to one another; the other type is called a preparatory school or prep school, cultivating pupils of eight up to thirteen years old for the entry into secondary independent schools.

Secondary Education

Secondary education is the other constituent part making up British compulsory education, which has been extended to sixteen years of age. Pupils generally move to a secondary school at the age of eleven or twelve years. In the first three years (key stage 3) of secondary school, students study the same subjects as key stage 2, plus two extra subjects: citizenship and modern foreign languages. Key stage 4 starts at the fourth year and covers the rest of two years of secondary school. Pupils are also entitled to some areas such as the religious education, sex education and careers education. But since these subjects do not form part of the national curriculum, parents have the right to withdraw pupils from them if they wish.

In the end of secondary education, students in England, Wales and Northern Ireland take a series of examinations in specified subjects, known as GCSEs (equivalent to Standard Grade in Scotland). Therefore the last two years of secondary education centre around preparing students for the school leavers' examinations. Usually students make a decision on the GCSE subjects at the end of key stage 3 and most of them choose eight to ten subjects. Virtually all students take GCSEs in the three core subjects: English Maths and Science. And individual schools may have specified requirements as well. Exams are taken in the last year of GCSE study, and as a result students are awarded qualifications showing varied ability levels.

Once students have completed their GCSEs, they then have the choice to either continue in full-time education or leave school and look for work. In recent years, there arises the tendency to legally extend compulsory education to eighteen years of age. Currently a great number of students (about 70 per cent) choose to stay in full-time education, some of them in the same school for two more years in the sixth form, others in some independent sixth form colleges. Separate sixth form colleges in some areas run a variety of vocational courses in technology, business, health and so on. Study at sixth form stage finally leads pupils to another national examination, the General Certificate of Education, Advance level (GCE A level or A level). A level is now widely recognized around the world and the grades students gained are regarded as an entry qualification for universities.

School system at secondary level

system	Type of School	Age Groups of Students	Finance	Exam
State School System	Comprehensive Secondary School	11–16 or18	State Funded; No Tuition Charges	GCSE, GCE A level
	Grammar School			
	Specialist and Sixth Form College	Usually 16–18		
Independent School System	Public School	13–18	Privately Funded; Fees	

Comprehensive schools are not selecting students on the basis of academic aptitude. Because of this nature comprehensive schools are viewed as neighborhood schools where education and equipments are entirely free and all students in the nearby area could attend irrespective of their ability. Just as the word "comprehensive" suggests, such schools take students from various backgrounds and offer them with a full range of subjects in an attempt to develop students' capacities in an all round way. In the former century comprehensive schools have been expanding fast across Britain. Many new schools were built and a large number of the then existing grammar schools and modern schools were closed or merged to produce new comprehensive schools. Currently a majority of about three million secondary school pupils (88 per cent) attend the comprehensive secondary schools.

However, there are still a number of students attending the remaining 164 grammar schools in England. As we have discussed at the beginning of this chapter, grammar schools are the oldest form of formal education in the UK and its history dates back to the very early medieval period, when at the time people felt the pressing need for good master of Latin grammar, especially people in the business cycle. Some of the currently existing grammar schools could even trace their histories to before the sixteenth century. Today the grammar school has adopted a comparatively new form and it commonly refers to the fully selective state-funded schools which take pupils who have passed an 11-plus exam. Grammar schools provide students of up to eighteen years of age with the education in natural science, history, geography and some others subjects. In view of the selective nature, the existence of grammar schools has long been the subjects of disputes. But it is safe to say that grammar schools are on the decline. In response to calls for its abolition, the government then introduced regulations for local ballots of parents that will determine whether schools remain selective. Despite that there are people in favor of the expansion of grammar schools, since 2006 no new grammar schools will be built, according to the government policy.

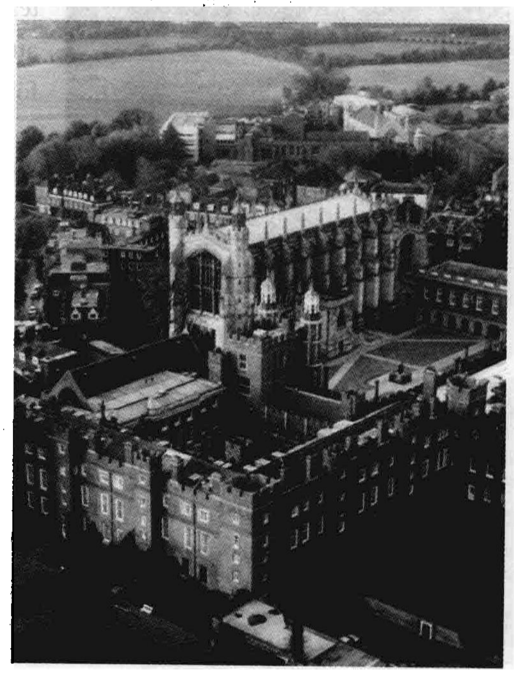
In recent decades, the British government has initiated a specialist schools program to encourage schools to specialize in certain areas, and a first attempt was found in the building of fifteen City Technology Colleges (CTC). CTCs are also non-fee paying secondary schools. They are established by the government with the aid from business sponsors and are overseen directly by the Department for Children, Schools and Families. Normally CTCs have close links with business and industry. Almost the full subjects of national curriculum are run in CTCs, but more importantly students are able to receive education in specialized and vocational areas. Now considerably more specialist schools are founded, specializing in, for example, science, technology, business, language, sports and a diversity of others. Any secondary school could apply for a specialist status in the UK.

There were a large number of secondary modern schools in the UK before 1970s, and they were said to run for children who failed to achieve good scores in the 11-plus examinations. But since the

implementation of comprehensive school system, modern schools were gradually replaced and now they only remain in some areas in Britain, where they are conveniently referred to as secondary schools or community schools.

Independent Schools

Independent schools usually operate independently of the state educational system and are financed predominantly by private sources in forms of fees charges, gifts and charitable endowments. Such schools often have relatively full freedom in setting up their own curriculum, selecting students and teachers, and in the way of educating students. Despite the freedom, all the independent schools must register with the Department for Children and are subject to inspections. The achievements of the independent school are outstandingly high compared with the state schools, though only a small number of students could afford to attend independent schools. There is no consensus about how much a child will cost in an independent school, but the yearly average fees are proximately 25,000 pounds for boarding students and half of that for day students. With an attempt to "promote and preserve the quality, diversity and the excellence of independent education at home and abroad", the Independent Schools Council was established, representing the interests of 1280 schools across Britain.



Eton College

Public Schools

Some of the most prestigious independent schools are known as public schools in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. The name 'public' school is confusing, for in many areas outside Britain public schools typically refer to those set up, financed and maintained by the government and those that charge no fees. The English usage of public school to refer to the more privileged independent schools could find its origin in the old times. It is said that public schools were established for the pupils especially from the backward families who could not afford private tutors. Since these schools were open to all public applications, they soon began to attract more students from across Britain, including those initially going to be educated at private households. The most widely known public schools are Eton, Harrow, Winchester and Rugby.

Admission into public schools is more often a hard thing. Most public schools are highly selective on the grounds of a student's former academic performance, financial capacity of his family and probably a social connection with the school. Almost all public schools require students to sit the Common Entrance Exams (CEE) conducted by the Independent Schools Examination Board. All the member schools agree to use the same set of papers including subjects on English, Science, Maths and one optional paper. But the standards vary from school to school. One school might need students to get an average of 60 per cent of the total while a candidate with 50 per cent might still be accepted by other schools.

Though many public schools are now co-educational, only boys are allowed to attend the historically renowned Winchester (1394), Eton (1440), Westminster (1560), and Harrow (1571). There are



Prince Harry in Eton's school uniform
- by Kirsty Wigglesworth from The Guardian

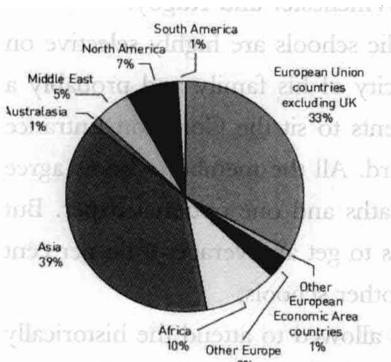
schools for girls as well, the best known being Cheltenham (1853), Roedean (1885), and Wycomb Abbey (1896). Each public school has its own rules, customs and peculiar traditions. Some require students to abide by the prescribed standards in their appearance, behavior and the language they use. Generally speaking, public schools are characterized by an emphasis on the forge of the characters of students and individual teaching. Students are exposed to a broader range of areas of education than that prescribed by the national curriculum; there are more teachers available to give each student good assistance and attention; the teaching hours are longer; students' characters are forged in the many sports and extra-curricular activities.

Public schools have demonstrated large competitive advantages not only in the academic realm, but also in British social life at large. Numerous social elites have been produced there. It is held that students from public schools are more likely to obtain higher scores at A-level. A greater proportion go to universities and many are admitted into Cambridge or Oxford. As one of the nine original leading public schools in Britain and the most famous one in the world, Eton has turned out eighteen British former prime ministers and Princes William and Harry are both old Etonians. However, public schools are often the targets of criticism for being elitist and overly expensive. People who are against private education also point out that public schools chronically neglected the importance of skills in science, technology and engineering, and consequently made little contributions in these fields.

Ⅲ. Higher Education

United Kingdom has been taking pride in its world-class higher education ever since the first old universities were founded. But the scale of universities grew slowly in the past centuries. Until 1960 there were only twenty three universities. After a series of development and expansions, today there are over one hundred universities in Britain and more than 1.2 million students are enrolled in the UK higher education system. Moreover an increasing number of adult students are studying either full-time or part-time in further and adult colleges or open universities across the state. The government policy is to attract 50 per cent of eighteen-to-thirty-year-olds to higher education by 2010.

351,470 Non-UK domiciled students



All Universities in the UK except Buckingham are state financed, but a recent trend since the Thatcher administration has been that the government support is reducing and universities are expected to depend more on self-financing. An undesirable consequence of this is that universities shift part of the attention to

marketing, fund-raising from the initially full concentration on teaching and research. At the same time, universities are competing on winning the favors of overseas students, who usually pay higher tuition fees than local students.

Universities

Number of Institutions in UK as at August 2009

	Higher education institutions	Universities*	University colleges*
England	132	91	9
Scotland	19	15	0
Wales	11	8	1
Northern Ireland	4	2	2
United kingdom	166	116	12

Note: 1. * are institutions with "university" or "university college" title.
2. The table excludes the private higher education colleges in the UK.

The British universities are often categorized into four major types:

1. The ancient universities

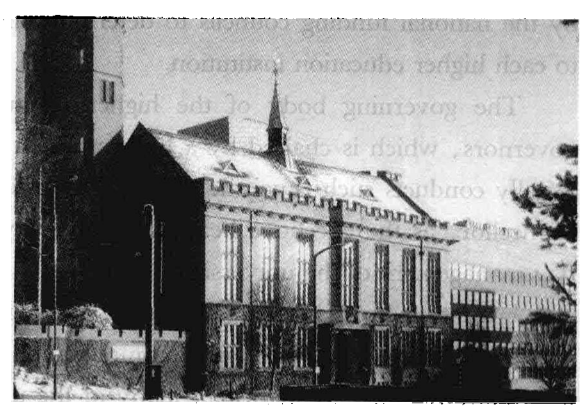
They have come into existence for centuries, including the seven universities dating back to as early as twelfth century. Up until the nineteenth century, they remained virtually the only universities and took male students only. The most historically well known ancient universities are Oxford and Cambridge (founded in the twelfth century) and they are usually collectively referred to as Oxbridge. A good many ancient universities were located in Scotland. They were founded mainly in the fifteenth and sixteenth century and mentioned as "old universities", including universities of St Andrew's, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh.



Oxford, a corner

2. Red brick universities

They are made up of the large civic universities established at the turn of the twentieth century before World War I. The six red brick universities are: The Universities of Birmingham, Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, Bristol and Manchester. The term "red brick" is probably inspired from the distinctive red brick and terracotta dressings of the school buildings.



University of Sheffield

3. Plate glass universities

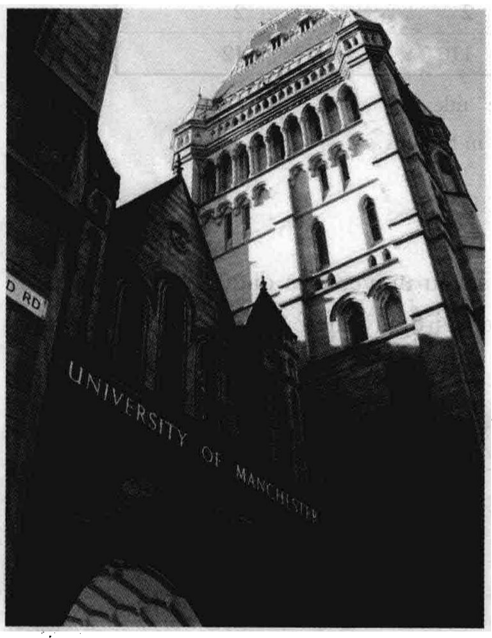
They refer to the group of universities built in the 1960s with peculiar modern architectural designs. The school buildings typically contain wide expanses of plate glass in steel or concrete frames. These universities are said to have been taking new initiatives

in syllabuses, examinations, teaching methods, administration and disciplines. Universities of this type are often linked with towns rather than big cities, including Bath, Essex, Kent, Warwick and many others.

4. New universities

They have come to be used to refer to any of the former vocational polytechnics that were transformed into modern universities since the Further and Higher Education Act 1992, including Greenwich, Coventry, Manchester Metropolitan and Sheffield Hallam.

One third of the students in England and a half in Scotland enter a university at the age of eighteen. To get admitted to universities, all students home and abroad must apply through Universities & Colleges Admissions Service (UCAS). Applicants usually have up to five confidential choices of institutions they wish to enter. All Applications must be finished by January and normally students could expect to receive offers or unfortunately rejections in March of the same year. The ultimate confirmation of a place is not made until the results of A-level are available in August. During the processing of the applications, some particular non-academic performances are also taken into considerations by some universities. Normally candidates with exceptional family background and those showing unusual advantage in, for instance, sports or arts, are more likely to be taken. Once successful in their application, students will spend three years in their undergraduate study before they obtain a bachelor's degree. It will last for even five years for certain professional courses, like medicine, law and teaching. In Scottish universities the time is usually four years.



Manchester University

Nearly all British universities conduct both research and teaching, although the focus and balance vary from one to another. Classroom teaching typically takes the form of lectures and seminars, and students are often advised to form good habits in reading extensively, thinking critically and developing their own areas of strength independently. In relation to research, about every five years a Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) is carried out to evaluate the quality of research in universities, consequently turning all universities into ranks by subject areas. The rankings are then used by the national funding councils to determine the suitable allocation of quality-weighted research funding to each higher education institution.

The governing body of the higher institution is known as the university council or board of governors, which is chaired by a well-respected chancellor as a non-executive figurehead. The chancellor usually conducts such ritualistic duties as awarding the degrees at graduation ceremonies, whilst the vice-chancellor, as the executive head of a university, is in full charge of the strategic leadership and day to day management of the university.

Education from this level upward is no longer free of charge. All students have to pay university fees and afford their own living and accommodation costs. But financial supports are often available from the local authority. In fact in Britain many of the university students work part-time on campus or find jobs

outside during summer vacations.

Britain uses a hierarchical grading system of degree titles with bachelor's degrees and some master's degrees. A bachelor's degree is designated to the undergraduate students who have fulfilled all the degree requirements. The most common degrees given include Bachelor of Arts (BA) and Bachelor of Science (BSc). Degree titles range from a first class, an upper second class (usually abbreviated to 2:1 and pronounced as two one), a lower second class (2:2), a third class and an ordinary degree (pass). All are honours degrees except the last one. Very often those with a first or second honours degree are more likely to be accepted to postgraduate programs. Postgraduate degrees are known as master's degrees, including Master of Arts (MA), Master of Science (MSc), Master of Education (MEd) and others, depending on the specific subject area. The length of the master's program is roughly one year for a taught course and two years for research program. Students with 70 per cent and above on average will be awarded a degree with distinction. Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) is a research degree normally reserved for doctorates awarded on the basis of original research. It takes at least three years to obtain a PhD in Britain.

The Open University

The Open University is one distance learning university founded by the British government in 1969. As the name "open" suggests, the Open University is said to be "open to people, places, methods and ideas". It now provides a wide range of short or long-term undergraduate and postgraduate programs to people in the wide world in flexibly varied learning places from on-campus to households with no entry requirements. The type of teaching in the Open University is called "supported open learning", meaning in addition to the large flexibility, students receive supports from tutors, students centre services staffs and centralized libraries. There are thirteen regional centers across the UK where students could take assistance from. Learning takes place through a variety of media from printed course materials, set books, audio or video cassettes, TV programs, to cd-rom or software, web site and home experiment kit. Many courses also include optional tutorials at the local regional centers and day schools held at a variety of locations. The learning effects are assessed through written assignments and/or examinations. The qualifications obtained at the Open University are increasingly recognized in the society and more and more people either in the UK or from other parts of the world are joining the Open University part-time to keep their knowledge up to date.

Further education

Further education in Britain is also known as post-compulsory education, providing learning opportunities for people over sixteen. The forms of further education usually include general further and tertiary colleges, certain specialist colleges, adult education institutes and work based learning. Normally the courses run in most further education colleges are similar to those in higher education colleges, but often students could enroll in the short-term training programs. Vocational and foundation courses are also available in the further education sector. Some colleges also offer degree-level courses. Teachers in further education must gain professional status, known as Qualified Teacher Learning and Skills.

Glossary

public school 公立学校，公学
monastery 修道院
curriculum 课程
grammar school 文法学校
social elites 社会精英
technicians 技术人员
comprehensive school 综合学校
grant school 补助学校
allot 分配
budget 预算
core subjects 核心课程
parallel 平行，并行的
independent school 独立学校
compulsory education 义务教育
nursery school 幼儿园
key stages 关键阶段(义务教育)
Information and Communication Technology (ICT) 信息与通信技术
literacy 读写能力
numeracy 计算能力
teaching approach 教学方式
taxation 税收
tuition charges 学费
donation 捐助
enroll 录取
preparatory (prep) school (在英国为升入公学做准备的)私立预备学校
entitled 有资格的
qualification 资格，资质认证
entry qualification 入学资格
vocational 专科的，为职业做准备的
academic aptitude 学术才能
merge 合并
selective 选择性的
natural science 自然科学
abolition 废除
specialist school 专门学校
oversee 监督
origin 起源
tutor 家庭教师
co-educational 男女同校的
abide by 遵守
higher education 高等教育
full-time education 全日制教育
part-time education 非全日制教育
adult college 成人教育学院
the open university 英国开放大学
marketing 市场营销
Oxbridge 牛津剑桥
civic university 城市(城镇)大学
distinctive 与众不同的
terracotta 赤陶
initiative 首创
polytechnics 理工学院
transformed 转变的
offer 录取通知
bachelor's degree 学士学位
university council 大学理事会，校务委员会
chancellor (英)名誉校长
accommodation 住宿
hierarchically 分级地
undergraduate student 大学本科生
honours degree 荣誉学位
master's degree 研究生学位
Doctor of Philosophy (哲学)博士学位
on-campus 住校的
experiment kit 实验试剂盒
tutorial 导师的个别指导
assess 评估

Cultural Notes

1. **Comprehensive school** A state funded sedondary school that does not select students on the ground of academic aptitude. All pupils could attend this type of school free of charge. A comprehensive school usually teaches a full range of subjects across the academic and vocational spectrum.
2. **Specialist school** is the new type of secondary school that teaches the National Curriculum subjects as well as a few specialist branches of knowledge such as, business studies, sports, etc, not found in most of other schools. In Britain any school could apply for a specialist school status and it is advised that all school should specialize in certain areas.
3. **Standard Assessment Tasks** (SATs) are a series of national curriculum assessments, used to evaluate the attainment of children attending maintained schools in England. They comprise a mixture of teacher-led and test-based assessment depending on the age of the pupils.
4. **A Level** is the advanced level examinations taken typically at 18 years. This is the examination required for entrance to universities.
5. **Independent school** is the type of school which operates independently in terms of its finance and governance; it is not dependent upon national or local government for financing its operations nor reliant on taxpayer's contributions, and is instead funded by a combination of tuition charges, gifts, and in some cases the investment yield of an endowment.
6. **GCSE** is the abbreviation for the General Certificate of Secondary Education. This qualification is usually gained in 5 to 8 subjects at the age of 16, when compulsory school education comes to an end.
7. **Sixth Form College** is an educational institution where students aged 16 to 19 typically study for advanced school-level qualifications, such as A-levels, or school-level qualifications such as GCSEs. Students at Sixth Form College typically study for two years. In addition, some vocational courses are added to the curriculum. But Scotland does not have separate sixth form colleges.
8. **11 plus** also as the 11-plus or Eleven Plus is an examination administered to some students in their last year of primary education. The name comes from the age group for secondary entry: 11-12 years. The Eleven Plus examination was once used throughout the UK but is now used only in a number of counties and boroughs in England. Only students who have passed this exam could enter a grammar school.
9. **Independent Schools Examination Board** (ISEB) is the association established to offer examinations for pupils to transfer into independent schools. The main examination is The Common Entrance Examination (CEE) and the papers for the examination are set by the board. The board is made up of the members of the Headmasters' and Headmistresses' Conference (HMC), the Girls' School Association (GSA) and the Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools (IAPS).
10. **Old Etonians** The past students of Eton College are referred to as old Etonians.

Questions for Discussion

1. What are the brief developmental stages of education in Britain? How does the modern education

system differ from the education in the old time?

2. How are teachings conducted in British primary schools? What do you think of the teaching approaches?
3. What is a 'public school' in British education system? Please list several features of the public schools.
4. Universities in the UK can be broadly categorized into four major types in relation to the period of establishment. What are the four types and what are their respective characteristics?
5. Please describe the school system at secondary level in the UK. What types of secondary schools are there in Britain?
6. Work with a partner to study the chart below and then answer the questions.

Trends in higher education:
Students Enrollments at UK Higher Education Institutions

	1994/1995	2007/2008	% increase
Undergraduate	1,231,988	1,804,970	47%
Full-time	946,919	1,232,005	30%
Part-time	285,069	572,965	101%
Postgraduate	335,325	501,135	49%
Full-time	129,711	248,380	91%
Part-time	205,614	252,755	23%
All students	1.567,313	2,306,105	47%

1) What is the general trend in the total students enrollment in 2007/2008 compared to that in 1994/1995? What does that show?

2) Describe the full-time and part-time students' enrollment at undergraduate and post-graduate level. Which way of study has come into popularity and which way would you choose to receive the higher education?

Supplementary Reading

1. We Cannot Rely on Industry to Develop Our Graduates

As graduation ceremonies approach, it is interesting to reflect on how well degrees are regarded by employers and the world at large.

UK universities and colleges are producing higher than ever numbers of graduates to address the increasing demands of employers and meet the career aspirations of an increasingly large part of our population. This has led to students, parents and employers taking a more critical view of the qualities and skills of today's graduates. To understand what the UK higher education (HE) sector has to offer, it

is necessary to consider the changes that have occurred.

HE has evolved significantly over the past 25 years. In the mid-1970s, roughly 13% of those aged under 30 participated in HE. Since then, a much broader and diversified HE sector has emerged, with a wider range of subjects available, while participation has grown to 43%.

Simultaneously, the basic grant funding per home student allocated to universities has fallen by more than 35% since 1990, but has been partially offset with efficiency gains by universities and the introduction of capital grant and tuition fees payable by students.

The dynamics of attracting international students, and the fees they bring in, have changed as competition increases globally, provision in their home countries improves, and the exchange rate makes UK course more expensive. Nevertheless, the UK's strong reputation and popularity means it retains its position second only to the US.

The emphasis on quality provision in teaching and learning in HE has grown significantly over the 25-year period.

I believe it can be argued that the quality of the corresponding top 13% (that is 13% of 43%) of graduates in the HE sector is at least as strong as it was for the full cohort in the 1970s.

Many senior managers and government leaders experienced a more elite education system and may not fully appreciate the balance between quality and diversity we see today. The vast majority of the additional 30% who gain a HE experience today will benefit, raising the overall educational attainment of the nation's workforce significantly.

Demand for graduates remains strong. The recent Leitch report has set skills targets for the workforce, with at least 40% higher-level skills by 2020 firmly on the government's agenda. The Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills has launched a consultation, Higher Education at Work, to define the skills and delivery needed for the future workforce to ensure Britain's competitiveness. A central theme is "employer engagement" - bringing universities and employers closer together in terms of what is taught, funding students, widening participation and access initiatives, and recognizing that most of the additional "up-skilled" graduates of the future must be drawn from the existing post-30 workforce.

Universities already have a long tradition of working with industry and commerce in developing graduates. I am sure the HE sector will seek even greater engagement, but I am uncertain that this will meet the full aspirations of government, especially the co-funding element. Larger companies can relocate to satisfy their demand for graduates, rather than share the cost of developing them here.

The UK investment in HE expressed in terms of its GDP remains less than half the average of OECD countries, and most notably the US. It will take more than co-funding from employers to help address this gap if we are to maintain the standards, reputation and competitiveness of UK higher education.

2. The UK School's Public Examination System

The National Curriculum

Maintained or state schools are required to follow the National Curriculum up to the age of 14; independent or so-called "public" schools are not obliged to do so, but most have adopted it. The curriculum consists of a range of subjects. There is a minimum mandatory core of English, mathematics,

combined science, physical education, religious education, and sex education, with short courses in technology (including Information Technology) and a modern foreign language. This gives schools the freedom to teach a greater range of academic or vocational subjects, such as Greek and Latin, additional modern languages (French, German, Spanish, etc.), performing or creative arts, history and geography, the three separate sciences, etc. up to GCSE examination standard at 16 years of age. Schools are also expected to teach Personal and Social Education (PSE), which includes Citizenship.

Standard Assessment Tasks (SATs)

Subjects are split into assessment tasks at 10 levels, depending on the age of the child. Pupils are tested at the end of the Key Stages to establish which attainment level they have achieved. There are four Key Stages, each covering stages of the compulsory school years (Year 1 to Year 13):

KS1 Years 1-2 (Age 5-7)

KS2 Years 3-6 (Age 7-11)

KS3 Years 7-9 (Age 11-14)

KS4 Years 10-11 (Age 14-16)

Children are tested at 7, 11 and 14 in Maths, Science and English, partly by internal assessment and partly by written tests marked externally. Independent schools are not obliged to participate in these tests.

General Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (GCSE)

At the end of Year 11, pupils aged 16 take a public examination called the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) in a number of subjects, usually between 8 and 10. These consist of a mixture of internally assessed coursework (20% - 40% maximum depending on the subject; the amount of coursework is laid down by the Government) and end-of-year examinations set and marked by independent examination boards. The results appear as grades A-G, where A is the top grade (a starred A* was introduced in 1994 for the best of the A grades). A, B or C grades are normally regarded as equivalent to the "pass" grades in the previous GCE examination, known as O-Level.

Advanced Subsidiary and Advanced Level GCE

After GCSE, more able pupils enter the "Sixth Form" (Year 12) and study two-year courses leading to the Advanced Level GCE examination (taken by 18 year olds at the end of Year 13), usually in three subjects. From September 2000, most pupils in Year 12 will have studied a slightly broader curriculum of 4 or 5 subjects to AS Level (Advanced Subsidiary) for one year, at the end of which they sit an examination and are awarded a grade. In Year 13, most go on and study 3 or 4 of these subjects to A2 level. The examination at the end of that year incorporates the AS result in a full A-level grade, awarded for the whole two-year course. Some pupils may study Key Skills in Communication, Application of Number and Information Technology, and may gain an additional qualification in these skills.

The combined teaching time for each AS and A2 level subject is between 280 and 320 minutes a week for approximately 64 weeks over two years. These examinations are graded A-E (pass grades) or U (unclassified). For entry to Oxford or Cambridge and the most popular courses at other universities, 3 A grades or 2 A grades and 1 B are normally required. Most other courses are likely to require at least B and C grades; a few will ask for Ds and Es in less popular subjects.

International Baccalaureate (IB)

Devised in 1968, the IB is more popular in Europe, but an increasing number of schools in the UK

are offering the IB alongside, or as an alternative to, A-Level. The course, studied over two years, is broader than A-Level and has a curriculum of six subject groups. At both Higher and Subsidiary level, each examined subject is graded on a scale of 1 (minimum) to 7 (maximum). The award of the Diploma required a minimum total of 24 points. The maximum score attainable is 45. The most competitive universities will be looking for candidates with around 40 points.

General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs)

General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs), tested by both coursework and external examinations, have been introduced into English schools. These represent different levels of attainment: Level 2 corresponds to GCSE, while Level 3 corresponds to A-Level and is known as "vocational A-Level". They are more vocational or practical than the more academic A-Levels, and are intended to lie between A-Levels and other vocational qualifications (NVQs) to provide an alternative form of full-time 16-19 education. The first GNVQs were in: Art and Design, Business, Health and Social Care, Leisure and Tourism and Manufacturing. Fourteen different subjects are now available.

Scottish Higher Examinations

The Scottish educational system is different from the English. After taking a Standard Grade certificate in a full range of subjects at 15 or 16, Scottish school pupils take Higher Grade courses in up to 5 subjects to qualify for university entrance. Able pupils will tend to complete 4 Highers in one year and in their final year combine study of additional Highers with more advanced courses leading to the Certificate in Sixth Year Studies (SYSs) in 2 or 3 subjects. Scotvecs, a modular system of technical and vocational subjects, are also becoming increasingly popular.

Schools: non-selective

The maintained or state sector consists mainly of comprehensive schools, with no overt selection policy, a few selective grammar schools and sixth form colleges (17-19 year olds). Over the last few years the last Government, in conjunction with private enterprise, has opened a number of City Technology Colleges (CTCs). These are deliberately non-selective, but emphasize good academic results, are well equipped and place greater emphasis on science and technology.

The "Gap" Year

It is customary for many school pupils to take a year off between school and university, commonly known as a "GAP" year. Many will earn money, do voluntary work at home or abroad, travel or obtain a qualification of some sort. Many British schools and universities encourage this practice.

Transcripts

The American concept of a school transcript is unfamiliar in the UK. Schools in the UK do not generally rank pupils within their year. Individual schools have their own internal examinations and systems of measuring academic performance, but the principal standards are the GCSE, AS and A-Level examination results. Some schools will issue Records of Achievement, which provide a record of a pupil's academic and other achievements throughout his or her school career, but these are by no means universal.

The most usual evidence that a UK school would provide of a 17 year old applicant's ability and potential would be the GCSE results, the new AS results (from August 2001), A-Level forecast grades (or actual grades for post-A-Level 18 or 19 year old candidates), and an adapted version of the UCAS

reference (required for all applications to British universities). These references tend to be more frank and less flattering than US references from college advisers and personal tutors.

UK schools which are used to dealing with candidates for admission to US colleges and universities will be familiar with the need for them to take SATs and, in the case of non-native English speakers, TOEFL (even though a pass grade A*, A, B or C in GCSE English is a more than adequate qualification). Some may also take SAT II Subject Tests, but the assumption is that A-Levels are equivalent to these.

3. Expected length of study

First year, full-time, first degree students by subject area and expected length of program 2007/08

	Expected length of Program							
	≤3 years		>3 years ≤4 years		4 years ≤5 years		>5 years	
Medicine& dentistry	425	4.4%	1105	11.4%	7230	74.6%	930	9.6%
Subjects allied to medicine	21495	74.4%	7070	24.5%	265	0.9%	70	0.2%
Biological sciences	30665	77.8%	8320	21.1%	395	1.0%	55	0.1%
Veterinary science	105	11.0%	70	7.5%	720	74.9%	65	6.6%
Agriculture& related subjects	1690	66.0%	840	32.7%	0	0.0%	30	1.2%
Physical sciences	8970	51.5%	7755	44.5%	600	3.5%	85	0.5%
Mathematical sciences	4730	60.1%	3040	38.6%	100	1.3%	0	0.0%
Computer science	10360	55.1%	7865	41.8%	535	2.9%	40	0.2%
Engineering&technology	11360	43.1%	12630	47.9%	2330	8.8%	40	0.1%
Architecture, building & planning	5705	57.5%	3500	35.3%	440	4.4%	265	2.7%
Social studies	32755	86.2%	5005	13.2%	25	0.1%	205	0.5%
Law	15725	81.3%	3555	18.4%	65	0.3%	0	0.0%
Business&administrative studies	36435	64.3%	19725	34.8%	275	0.5%	190	0.3%
Mass communications& documentation	11605	89.7%	1280	9.9%	25	0.2%	35	0.3%
Languages	15805	62.7%	9125	36.2%	170	0.7%	115	0.5%
Historical& philosophical studies	15265	88.0%	2035	11.7%	5	0.0%	50	0.3%
Creative arts & design	38300	84.6%	6705	14.8%	200	0.4%	40	0.1%
Education	11310	74.0%	3735	24.5%	235	1.5%	0	0.0%
Combined	1295	56.0%	1020	44.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Total-All subject areas	273995	69.5%	104380	26.5%	13625	3.5%	2220	0.6%
Supplementary subject information								
Psychology	13115	84.3%	2330	15.0%	115	0.7%	0	0.0%
Geography	5325	82.2%	1130	17.5%	0	0.0%	20	0.3%
Economics & politics	12495	83.6%	2430	16.3%	15	0.1%	0	0.0%
English	12355	88.8%	1425	10.2%	15	0.1%	115	0.8%

Further Reading

1. Chitty, Clyde *Education Policy in Britain*. London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2004

Useful Websites

1. http://www.isc.co.uk/
2. http://www.bbc.co.uk/education/
3. http://www.dfes.gov.uk
4. http://www.dg.dial.pipex.com/articles/index.shtml

Chapter 12

British Media



导 读

Introduction

英国的传媒业相当发达，报纸、书籍、杂志、电视、广播和各种音像制品等传媒在英国人生活中无所不在。英国在当今国际社会传媒业中也占据主导地位，路透社、BBC 等在国际新闻行业中相当活跃和有影响力。特别是 BBC 英国无线电广播，随着科技的发展和 BBC 发展策略的部署，其在全球拥有上亿的听众，为世界带来信息便捷的广播和电视节目。在英国当地，除了 BBC，还有 ITV、SKY 等电视台。这些媒体业不光充当着为生活增添娱乐休闲以及新闻信息，同时也在为英国的经济创造巨大财富。英国传媒业的产值占 GDP 的 5%，雇佣了 100 多万的劳动力，每年创造将近 330 亿美金的财富。

Ⅰ. Introduction

The Great Britain is not only famous for its glorious history, boasting for the industrial revolution and its contribution in the promotion of the civilization of the world. The UK also enjoys the world reputation for the advancement of the media industry. The country has over thousands of newspapers and magazines, together with thousands of publishers. The publication and the reporting of the international affaires all earn the UK the title of the world leading media industry. The purpose of this chapter is to inform you of the general historical background of the development of the UK media industry, as well as the development strategies and current situation of the major media companies.

Ⅱ. Radio Broadcasting in UK

The Broadcasting History of BBC

The first experimental broadcast in Britain was Marconi's factory in Chelmsford in 1920. Marchese Guglielmo Marconi was an Italian inventor, who was famous for his development of radiotelegraph system. The British Broadcasting Company was established two years later on 18 October, 1922 by a

group of six telecommunications companies: Marconi, Radio Communication Company, Metropolitan-Vickers, General Electric, Western Electric, and British Thomson-Houston to broadcast radio services. The first transmission of the program was on 14th November, 1922, via station 2LO, in London. Though at the beginning the broadcasting was mainly experimental, the result was really inspiring.

Four years later, the former British Broadcasting Company then transformed into the British Broadcasting Corporation. At that time, John Charles Walsham Reith, a Scottish broadcasting executive, was employed as the BBC's General Manager. He then became the Director-General of the British Broadcasting Corporation. John Reith was a firm believer of the idea that broadcasting was a way of educating the mass market; therefore, he tried to promote the philosophy of public service broadcasting and to be as independent as possible from political control. His idea influenced not only the BBC but also the similar organizations around the world at his time. The BBC started to broadcast television in 1932 by using an electromechanical line system developed by John Logie Baird. The television services were suspended during the World War II (1939-1946).

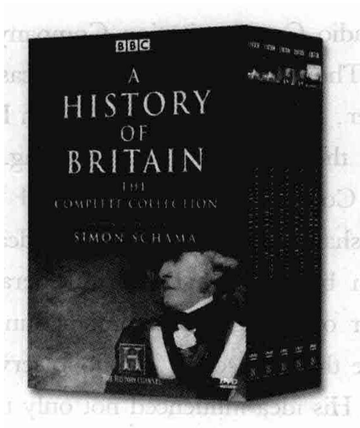
Since the establishment of the BBC, it was decided that the BBC would run as a public corporation under a Royal Charter. The Charter decreed that the BBC's view would be entirely independent of any private or government influence. Therefore, the BBC could air its view free from any political and commercial influence and only be responsible for its viewers and listeners. The Royal Charter is reviewed every ten years. The current one runs from 2007 to 2016. It specifies that the mission of the Corporation is to "inform, educate and entertain". And the Corporation should serve its public interest and purposes as: 1) to sustain citizenship and civil society; 2) to promote education and learning; 3) to stimulate creativity and cultural excellence; 4) to represent the UK, its nations, regions and communities; 5) to bring the UK to the world and the world to the UK; 6) to help to deliver to the public the benefit of emerging communications technologies and services, and to take a leading role in the switchover to digital television.

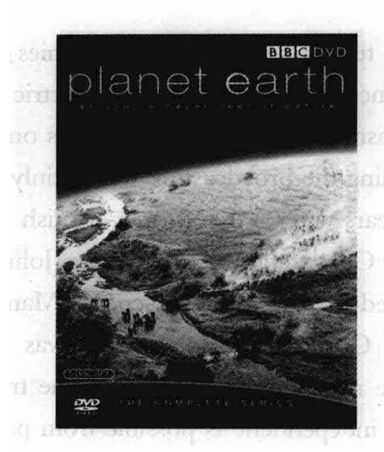
The BBC's main purpose is to provide public service radio, television and internet broadcasting within the United Kingdom. The BBC also provides the world services and this service makes it world famous broadcaster, with 32 languages broadcasting programmes. It sends its news reports and other various radio programmes through digital shortwave, internet streaming, podcasting, satellite, FM and MW relays. In 2009, the BBC reported that the World Service receives average weekly audience of 188 million people. And the world services are non-profit; the fund is from the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, which is different from the BBC domestic services. What's more, the BBC World Service is run by a different Managing Director from the domestic services.

The BBC runs its world service for free, and when it needs money, the fund is from the UK government. However, the BBC's domestic services require every domestic residence in the UK to pay an annual television and radio tax to support the running of the BBC. Apart from it, the BBC does earn some profits from commercial operations through the BBC Worldwide Ltd., which operates magazines and book publishing, and the BBC Studios and Post Production Ltd., which offers certain programme-making services. Both are the BBC's subsidiary companies.

Today, the BBC has its correspondents in more than 200 countries and is available to more than 274 million households. And it is the longest international broadcasting service in the world.

In Britain, the largest radio programme broadcaster is the BBC. It runs seven radio stations (Radio1-7)





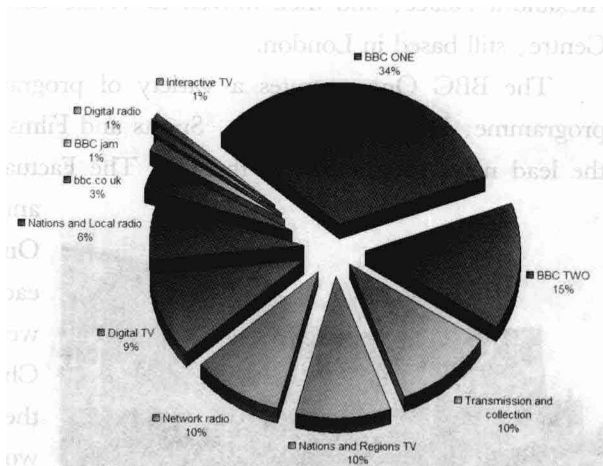
and several regional stations, such as BBC Radio Wales, BBC Radio Scotland etc. Apart from these national and regional stations, the BBC runs the BBC World Service, which provides the radio programme worldwide. BBC Radios 1-7's headquarter is based in London; it also has stations in Belfast, Birmingham, Cardiff, Glasgow, Bristol and Manchester.

With the advancement of the technology, the BBC offers its radio programme via various media: online, radio schedule, mobile, iplayer, and podcasts. These are all the ways to ensure that the BBC is offering the free while informative and comprehensive programmes to its audience.

Apart from the BBC Radio programmes, in Britain there are many other local radio services. See the table below:

Name	Licence Area
A Plus	Leicestershire
96.3 Radio Aire	Leeds
Andover Sound	Andover
107.8 Arrow FM	Hastings and Bexhill
Ashbourne Radio	Ashbourne
Asian FX	West Midlands
Asian Sound	East Lancashire and Greater Manchester
Atlantic FM	Cornwall
Banbury Sound	Banbury
Bath FM	Bath
The Bay	Morecambe Bay
The Beach	Great Yarmouth and Lowestoft
Beacon	Wolverhampton, Shrewsbury and Telford
107 The Bee	Blackburn
Bright FM	Burgess Hill, Haywards Heath, and Lewes
BRMB	Birmingham
Brunel FM	Swindon
Buzz Asia	London
95.8 Capital FM	London
106.5 Central Radio	Preston, Leyland and Chorley
CFM	Cumbria and South West Scotland

Chelmsford Radio	Chelmsford
Choice FM	London
City Talk 105.9	Merseyside
Radio City 96.7	Merseyside
The Coast	South Coast
Colourful Radio	London
Compass FM	Grimsby
Connect FM	Kettering
	Peterborough
County Sound Radio	Guildford
Dearne FM	Barnsley
Dee 106.3	Chester
Delta Radio	East Hampshire, South West Surrey, North West Sussex



The list above only shows a very small number of the local radio services. There are also community radio services in Britain which are to carter for the different interest and local service. It is very clear that the BBC is one non-profit but runs with the compulsory fund from all the residence in Britain. Many other stations, as those listed above, are commercial stations. Let's see how the BBC is using its fund.

From the chart, we can see that the BBC spends most of its budget on the BBC TV stations. The BBC nations and local radio programmes only receive 6% of the budget. And, comparatively, the Network radio receives 10% of the budget.

Ⅲ. Television Service

The television service in the United Kingdom is composed mainly of two chartered public broadcasting companies: the BBC and Channel 4. There are also two commercial television companies: ITV and Five. The BBC runs eight national television channels: BBC One, BBC Two, BBC Three, BBC Four, CBBC, Cbeebies, BBC News, BBC Parliament; together with the BBC Red Button interactive TV and BBC HD. BBC One and BBC Two are the primary television channels that the BBC provides. BBC One was launched on 2nd November, 1936 as the BBC Television Service, and it was the first regular public television service in the world. BBC Two was launched in 1964. Both BBC One and BBC Two are public television services with the annual budget, therefore, the programmes are shown without commercial advertising. BBC One is currently most watched programme in the United Kingdom.

BBC Television Service

The BBC's television programme started from the Broadcasting House, which moved to 16 Portland

Place, London in 1934. It broadcasted its programmes firstly with the telephone line via medium wave till 1935. By then, the technology transformed into all-electronic television systems. In 1936, the BBC television broadcasts house moved to a new wing of Alexandra Palace in London, with two studios, various scenery stores, dressing rooms and offices. Together with the 240-line intermediate film system and the 405-line Marconi system, the BBC established itself as the world's first regular high-definition television service and broadcasted Monday to Saturday. After six-month trial running of the two systems, the 240-line was proved inferior and was dropped in 1937.

During the Second World War, the BBC suspended its television services for fear that the transmissions would cause problem during the war time and many of the technicians and engineers were needed for the war. On 7th June, 1946, the BBC resumed its programme with Jasmine Bligh making the announcement saying, "Good afternoon everybody. How are you? Do you remember me, Jasmine Bligh?"

In the early 1950's, the majority of the BBC studios moved to Lime Grove Studios from the former Alexandra Palace, and then moved to White City, which was especially built for the BBC Television Centre, still based in London.

The BBC One operates a variety of programmes, including BBC News, Factual and Learning programme, Drama, Children's, Sports and Films. The News, each year running around 159 hours, is the lead news programme in the UK. The Factual and Leaning programme operates over 1880 hours annually, featuring natural documentaries mostly. BBC One provides over 1000 hours of Drama programme each year, such as *EastEnders* for four half-hour each week, and many other styles of drama programmes. Children's programme is a tradition for BBC One, and the most popular programme, CBeebies, is now worldwide known.


The BBC White City Television Center

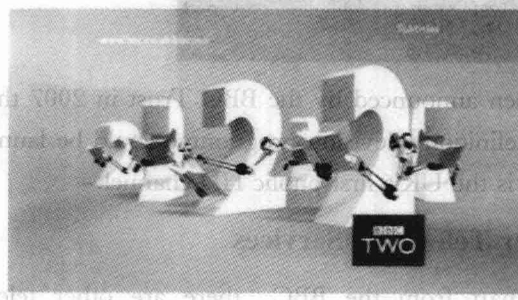
BBC One also broadcasts the sports, including Premier League football, tennis from Wimbledon, horse racing and the London Marathon. Film and other entertainment programmes are broadcasted by BBC One as well. BBC One is a comprehensive channel comparing to other channels the BBC runs.

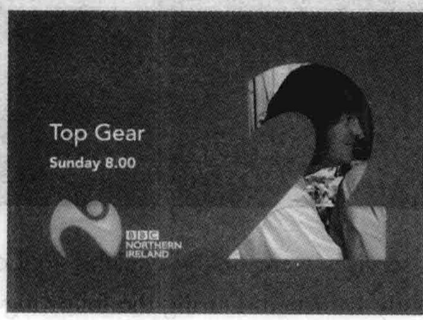
BBC Two is the second major terrestrial television channel of the BBC, with the aim to provide a wider range of subjects and interests. BBC Two is the second



domestic television station launched in the UK and the first in Europe to broadcast regularly in color. During the evenings, BBC Two runs Northern Ireland, BBC Two Scotland and BBC Two Wales, which mainly includes local news and weather forecasts. BBC Tow is also very famous for its numerous idents, which are the various short films displaying its station identification.







BBC Three is broadcasted through digital cable, terrestrial and satellite platforms. This channel runs new drama, talent, comedy and films. BBC Three's 80% output is original, from drama to comedy and animation. It has unique 60-second news.

BBC Four is a digital channel, available to freeview, satellite and cable viewers in the UK. It was launched on 2nd March, 2002 as the successor to BBC Knowledge. The programmes it provides include: drama, documentaries, music, international films and current affairs. The budget it receives is only around 4.7% of that of BBC One, equals to £ 67m.

BBC Parliament aims to be accessible to all the work of the parliamentary and legislative bodies of the UK and the European Parliament. It broadcasts live and recorded coverage of the House of Commons and House of Lords, Select Committees and the UK Parliament, the three assemblies (the Scottish Parliament, the Northern Ireland Assembly and the Welsh Assembly) and occasionally from the General Synod of the Church of England. It also reports from the annual party conferences of the main UK political parties and the Trades Union Congress.

BBC HD is a high-definition television channel, which was launched as a trial from 15 May, 2006. It then started to offer full service on 1st December, 2007. The first HD originated programme was *Planet Earth*, which was shown on 27 May, 2006. The BBC HD programme experimented for twelve months. It

was then announced by the BBC Trust in 2007 that the high definition television programme could be launched, which is the UK's first public HD channel.



Other Television Services

Apart from the BBC, there are other television services in the UK. ITV is a commercial television broadcaster, which was set up under the Independent Television Authority. It was launched in 1955, now is the oldest commercial broadcaster in the UK. Its legal name now is Channel 3 according to the Broadcasting Act 1990. ITV (Independent Television) was established after the set-up of Independent Television Authority. The TV services were firstly available to London, the Midlands and the North of England in 1955 when it was firstly launched. During the following years, the network was reshaped and promoted. It is now the very competitive rival of the BBC with the traditional programmes as well as the digital programmes.

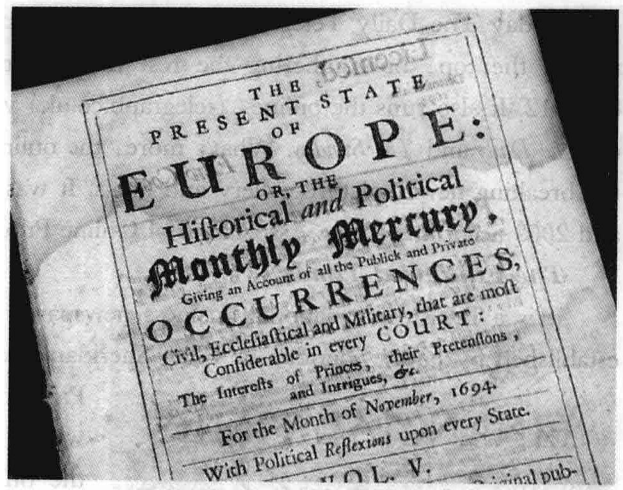
Channel 4 is also a commercial and public service television broadcaster which was launched in 1982, comparatively younger television station. The station now is run by the Channel Four Television Corporation, which is a public body established in 1990. ITV's legal name is Channel 3, which was to distinguish it from the BBC's BBC One and BBC Two. Therefore, Channel 4 was launched as a new channel to provide the fourth television service to the UK people, which is also to offer diversity of the television broadcasting industry. Channel 4 has a much wider audience, including the UK and some nearby countries. It also offers new competition in the cable, satellite and digital services.

Ⅳ. The UK Press Industry

The newspaper refers to the publication containing news, information and advertisement. There are also articles featuring politics, crime, business, sports and entertainment. And some papers also have an editorial section to express certain persons' views and opinions. In most UK newspapers there are crosswords, horoscopes and some other columns, such as critical reviews of the books and movies, recommended restaurants etc.

In UK, the earliest versions of publications might be in the 17th century. During that time, there were different kinds of publications featuring rumors and news, like posters, pamphlets and ballads. The concept of the newspaper emerged at that time; the key element to differ newspaper from the former

publications is that newspapers would be published at regular intervals.


THE PRESENT STATE OF
EUROPE:
OR, THE
Hiſtorical and Political
Monthly Mercury,
Giving an Account of all the Publick and Private
OCCURRENCES,
Civil, Eccleſiaſtical and Military, that are moſt
Conſiderable in every COURT:
The Intereſts of Princes, their Pretenſions,
and Intrigues, &c.
For the Month of November, 1694.
With Political Reflexions upon every State.

Around the 19th century, there were 52 London papers and over 100 other papers. With the advancement of the society, the newspapers gain its circulation dramatically.

In the UK, the newspapers are generally divided into serious papers and less serious papers. The serious newspapers are usually called broadsheets because they often print in large size and sometimes are considered as quality press as well due to the content. The less serious papers are called as tabloids due to their small size and are known as the popular press as well. Geographically, the newspapers are divided into national newspapers and regional newspapers.

Fleet Street in London

Fleet Street was the centre for the British press industry until the 1980s. The street is named after the River Fleet, which now flows underground. It was round 1500 when Fleet Street began to welcome the publishing business. London's first daily newspaper, *The Daily Courant*, was published in Fleet Street in 1702. Fleet Street is also famous for Sweeney Todd, a barber who said to have lived there. Now almost all of the newspapers have moved to Wapping, which locates to the east of London. Fleet Street now is famous for its inns.

Some National Broadsheets

The Daily Telegraph

It is a daily morning broadsheet newspaper to meet national as well as international subscribers. The newspaper was established in 1855 by Colonel Arthur B. Sleigh (1821-1869), who was an army officer, and travel writer. The first issues were not successful, later Colonel Sleigh had to sell the paper to Joseph Moses Levy (1812-1888). Joseph Moses Levy, after learning the printing trade in Germany, established his printing company in Fleet Street. He was very active in the newspaper industry. When Colonel Arthur Sleigh founded the Daily Telegraph & Courier in 1855, Levy was the publisher for the paper. However, Colonel Arthur Sleigh was unable to pay the printing bills later. It was then Levy took over the newspaper. Levy asked his son, Edward Levy-Lawson, to edit the paper and then re-launched the newspaper on 17th September, 1855. He used the slogan — the largest, best and cheapest newspaper in the world— hoping to achieve the largest circulation at that time. It proved that Levy was successful in running the newspaper. Soon his paper outsold The Times, and by 1856 June, the paper reached the 27,000 circulation.

The Daily Telegraph supported the Liberal Party and occasionally causes the campaign against capital punishment. It has been conservative in the political stand. There has always been the personal links between the paper's editors and the leadership of the Conservative Party. Therefore the paper is viewed as the Torygraph. In 1961, the Sunday Telegraph was issued as the sister paper of The Daily Telegraph, which contains the supplemented sections of living, sports and travel etc.

Today The Daily Telegraph is one of the highest selling British broadsheets. In January, 2009, it ranked the top, outnumbering the rest newspapers in the UK with an average daily circulation of 842,912. It also runs the online (telegraph.co.uk) version of the newspaper, covering the papers printed on *The Daily* and *The Sunday*. What's more, the online-version also has its own distinguished features with the breaking news, picture gallery and blogs. It was named as UK Consumer Website of the Year 2007 and 2009 according to the Association of Online Publishers.

The Financial Times

It is a British international business newspaper focusing on the business and finances. The FT was established by James Sheridan in 1888. Sheridan was a British Labour politician and was the Member of Parliament. The paper used to be a four-page journal and with a small circle of readers in London. Later, by merging the only rival paper, The Financial News, in 1945, the paper transformed into a six-page newspaper. With the editorial section from the former the Financial News, the new version of the paper received more audience. With the year's development, the paper now established correspondents in many countries around the world, reporting more informative news on world economy.


FINANCIAL TIMES

Credit where it's due

Oh, grow up

Unfair value?

Dollar falls to record low

Carlyle chief in pledge to failed fund investors

Since 1970s, the FT took action in employing new technological facilities, and along with the world acceptance of English language, the FT printed firstly outside the UK, in Frankfurt. Now it is generally considered as a global newspaper with four international editions to serve the UK, continental Europe, the U.S., Asia and the Middle East.

The Guardian

The paper was firstly launched as The Manchester Guardian in 1821 as a British daily newspaper. Then it was renamed as The Guardian in 1959. The Guardian is known for its left political stance and was reported to rank No. 3 in the circulation in January, 2009 with 358,844 copies behind The Daily Telegraph and The Times. The *Guardian Weekly*, operated by the same group — the Guardian Media Group— was firstly printed in 1919.

The Guardian Weekly is a weekly newspaper with a comprehensive content covering articles from The Guardian, The Observer, book reviews from The Washington Post and articles translated from France's *Le Monde* (World Newspaper) newspaper. The Weekly could be considered as one of the world oldest international newspapers. The purpose to run this weekly was to advance democracy after the WWI. The Guardian Weekly now has a monthly section of *Learning English* which provides news and classroom aids to teachers of English as a Foreign Language. It also has a fortnightly *Outlook* section which focus on international development.

The Observer

It is the sister paper of The Guardian, published on Sundays. The Observer holds a left-liberal or social democratic view on most issues. The first issue was published in 1791 by W. S. Bourne, which could be considered as the world's first Sunday newspaper. With the debts later, Bourne brothers offered to sell the paper to the government. The government refused to buy the paper, but agreed to subsidize it.

Later the Bourne brothers sold the paper to William Innell Clement, who was a newspaper proprietor and owned a number of publications already. Clement owned the paper till 1852, during which the paper supported parliamentary reform. In 1857, Clement's successor sold the paper to Joseph Snowe, whose stance in the American Civil War and other issues led the circulation to decline. Julius Beer, a wealthy businessman, bought the paper in 1870 and hired Edward Dicey as the editor, under whose leadership that the paper's circulation grew again. For the later development, The Observer has been one of the world leading newspapers.

The Observer and its sister newspaper, The Guardian, run a visitor centre in London, which is called The Newsroom. In the center, there are archives, copies of old editions, a photographic library and many other items such as letters and notebooks. All of these materials keep a vivid history of the development of The Observer as well as the record of the UK social changes.

The Independent

The newspaper is operated by Tony O'Reilly's Independent News & Media (INM), which is based in Dublin, Ireland. The company operates hundreds of print titles, radio stations and commercial websites in several countries. It used to be a broadsheet newspaper, but after 2003 it transformed into a tabloid format. The Independent holds politically left stance though it does not affiliate itself to any political party and readers can find various view points on its editorial and comment sections. The company also issues the Sunday paper as The Independent Sunday. And to meet the demand of the consumers, in 2008, The Independent opened its online edition. Apart from offering the basic information as the print paper does, the online edition also provides the blog service, video content and additional sections like art, architecture etc.

The Tabloids, Compact and Berliner

A tabloid refers to a smaller newspaper format and usually reports regional stories, entertainment, sensational crime stories, and gossip columns. Because the word "tabloid" has been associated with down-market newspaper in some aspects, some small size papers, which aim at higher quality, call themselves as "compact" newspaper. The Berliner paper refers to those sizes between the tabloid and the broadsheet.

The Daily Mirror

A British tabloid newspaper established in 1903 by Alfred Harmsworth as a newspaper for women. As the name indicates, the founder of the newspaper wished to mirror the feminine life. The newspaper was not very successful at the beginning and the owner once thought of changing it into a pictorial newspaper. Later, the paper added the words: A paper for men and women to the masthead. With more pictures and other promotion strategies, the newspaper reached 466,000 copies circulation and became the second largest morning newspaper. In 2010, January, the circulation was 1, 218, 425 daily.

The Sun

A daily tabloid newspaper published in the UK and Ireland. It boasts for its highest circulation of daily English-language newspaper in the world with around 3,006,565 copies a day in Jan., 2010. The newspaper was firstly published as a broadsheet in 1964 by the International Press Corporation in the hope to replace the failure of Daily Herald. However, *The Sun* was not very popular at the beginning. Later, *The Sun* adjusted its content and grew in the circulation in the 1980s under the editor of Kelvin MacKenzie. Politically, *The Sun* was the loyal supporter of Margaret Thatcher and throughout the 1980s; its stance was mostly to the Conservatives. There is a separate *Scottish Sun*, published and printed in

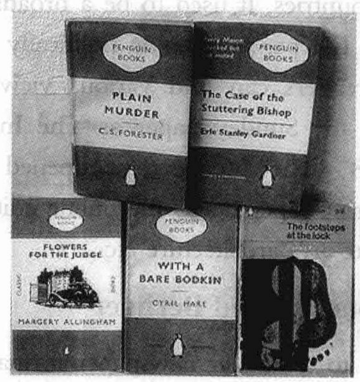
Glasgow and with a daily circulation of around 7,900,000.

V. The Book Publishing

The book publishing industry in the UK mainly produces mass-market paperbacks, adult fiction and non-fiction, children's books, audio books, and other subject books. The UK boasts the second largest publishing industry in Europe with a turnover of around 18.4 billion pounds, over 8000 companies and 164,000 staff. In today's information economy, publishing companies are the key elements to drive the transmission of the information.

Penguin Books

It is a publisher founded in 1935 by Allen Lane. The Penguin Publisher renewed the book market by producing high quality paper books with the price of only six pennies. At the end of the 1960s, Penguin was in financial trouble. Six weeks after the death of Allen Lane, the company was bought by Pearson Longman in 1970.



Design of the cover was the key for the success of the Penguin brand. Penguin used the simple outlook of three horizontal bands. The upper and lower parts were colored and the middle part indicates the title of the book. The color includes orange and white for general fiction, green and white for crime fiction, red and white for travel and adventure, purple and white for essays and blue and white for biographies.

Pearson

It is headquartered in London, the largest book publisher in the UK, and the second largest in the US and Canada. The company was founded by Samuel Pearson in 1844, but it was not for the publishing business. In 1880, the grandson of Pearson, Weetman, who was an engineer, moved the business to London and made it as one of the world's largest construction companies. It was in 1921, the

company bought a number of local newspapers, from which it formed the Westminster Press. It bought the *Financial Times* in 1957 and the *Longman* publisher in 1968. And it bought Penguin in 1970.

Bloomsbury Publishing

It is a publishing house for literary novels with its base in London. Bloomsbury Publishing was founded in 1986 by Nigel Newton. It is the publisher for *Harry Potter*, which brings Bloomsbury Publishing fame and profit. Bloomsbury was granted as Publisher of the Year in 1999 and 2000 by the British Book Industry due to its outstanding performance and contribution to the industry.

Oxford University Press

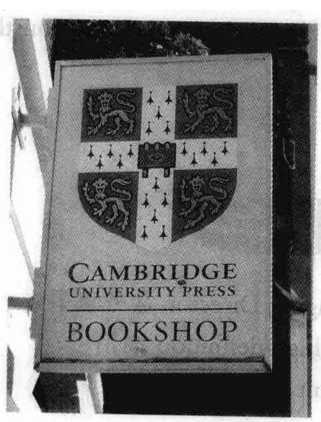
OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS

It is one of the largest university press in the UK. The press belongs to the University of Oxford and it is governed by a group of fifteen academics who are selected by the Vice-Chancellor, known as the Delegates of the Press. This system has run for centuries. The university started to print in the 15th century. The major project it produced was the Oxford English Dictionary in the late 19th century. And then it moved on to publish children's books, text books, music and journals. The Press now publishes thousands of new titles around the world each year. The Press publishing titles mainly include the following: dictionaries, indology, classics, history, and English language teaching. It is also the publisher of academic journals in science and humanity as well.

Cambridge University Press

It is the world oldest book publisher. It was granted a Royal Letters Patent by Henry VIII in 1534. It publishes academic and educational books. Apart from its Cambridge headquarter; it also has several regional centers in Europe, the Middle East, Africa, America, and Asia-Pacific. Its major publishing includes English language teaching, tertiary textbooks, professional reference books, and e-learning materials. It also prints hundreds of academic journals.

It was Thomas, appointed in 1583 as the first practising University Printer, who started the printing in Cambridge. He set up a printing house. In 1591, John Legate, Thomas's successor, printed the first Cambridge Bible. Then the University got the tradition to print the Bible with different versions: Authorized Version, the Revised Version, the New English Bible and the Revised English Bible. In the



CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

18th century, the press concerned more about the quality and design of printing techniques. Afterwards, the press set its mind on developing into a modern publishing business with clearly defined editorial policy and administrative structure. It opened its own bookshop in 1992 at Trinity Street, which locates in the centre of Cambridge. Books have been continuously sold on this site, which makes it a famous place to visit at Cambridge.

Now the Cambridge University Press owns offices and agents all over the world, publishing books of thousands of famous writers, producing quality academic journals and developing the English teaching reference books.

Ⅵ. Magazines in UK

In Britain, there is a huge variety of magazines, periodicals, and glossies. They feature different topics, such as business, life, education, entertainment, travel and food. The first published magazine was considered to be *The Gentleman's Magazine* in 1731, in London. It was believed to be the first time using the word 'magazine', originated from the Arabic 'makazin', meaning 'storehouses'.

Interesting Features of British Magazines

1. Crossword: it is a word puzzle which would take the form of a square or a rectangular grid of white and shaded checks. The purpose is to fill the white squares with letter to form words or phrases by referring to the clues. British people are keen to solve word puzzles and nearly all the magazines and newspapers would have a section providing this puzzle to their readers. There are even crossword puzzle magazines, which design puzzles on different topics, like gardening, keeping pets etc, and for different range of people, such as the puzzle for kids only which is very simple and intends to help them memorize more words, and the puzzle for those who love music.

2. New technology pushes the development and transforms the magazines. Due to harsh national competition for readership, magazines can't rely on providing fresh news information, as newspapers are doing the job, to attract loyal readers. They employ new technology to provide not only the print magazines but also audio magazines to the readers.

3. Top sellers: in UK most popular magazines focus on the life of celebrity, like *HEAT*, or on life style, such as *Yours*, which features life of those over 50s, or on sports, like *Bike* or *Car* which provide lately information on the new cars and writings on the understanding of freedom offered by riding the bikes. All the magazines boast for stunning photographs and the exclusive information they provide to the readers.

Glossary

2LO 英国当地的一家电台
Royal Charter 皇家宪章
relay 中转站
Managing Director 常务董事
HD high-definition 高清
Intermediate 中间

terrestrial 地面
ident 描述器,台标
BBC Trust 英国广播公司信托
iplayer 一种播放器
podcast 播客
pamphlet 册子
ballad 民谣
broadsheet 大版页的报纸
tabloid 小报
Sweeney Todd 理发师陶德,虚构的小说人物。
Fleet Street 舰队街
proprietor 老板
masthead 报头
Vice-Chancellor 校长
Indology 印度学
glossy 光泽

Cultural Notes

1. **Cbeebies** is a television channel produced by the BBC aimed at children 6 years and under. First launched on 11 February 2002, it is broadcast as both a free-to-air domestic British television channel, and as international variants supported by advertising, subscription or both.The channel has been nominated for, and won, many awards. At the BAFTA Children's Awards it has won awards in every year from 2002-2009 (apart from 2003), including *Best Pre-school Live Action Series awards* in 2002, 2004, 2005 and 2008. It has also won *Best Schools Programme - 0-5 years* awards (or equivalent) from the Royal Television Society from 2004-2007.
2. **The Royal Television Society** (commonly known in the television industry as the RTS) is a British-based society for the discussion, analysis and preservation of television in all its forms, past, present and future. It is the one of the oldest television societies in the world. It currently has fourteen regional and national centres in the UK, as well as branches in the Republic of Ireland, Canada and the United States.The group was formed as The Television Society on 7 September 1927, a time when television was still very much in its experimental stage. Regular high-definition broadcasts did not even begin for another nine years until the BBC began its transmissions from Alexandra Palace in 1936.In addition to serving as a forum for scientists and engineers, the society published regular newsletters charting the development of the new medium. These documents now form important historical records of the early history of television broadcasting.

Questions for Discussion

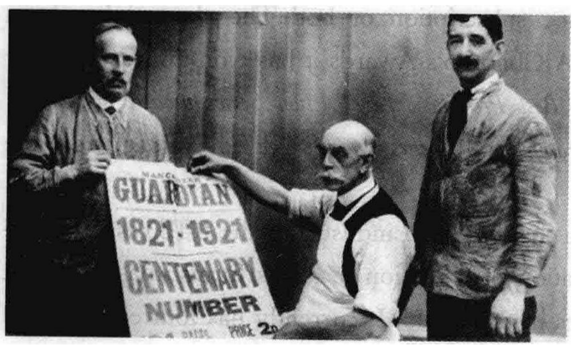
1. Pair in groups and tell each other what you know about the BBC history.
2. Please draw a chart of British newspaper and categorize them by broadsheets, tabloids.
3. Apart from BBC television service, what are the other television services in Britain?
4. What are the famous TV channels in the UK?
5. Who are the popular publishers in the UK?

Supplementary Reading

History of the Guardian

The Manchester Guardian was founded by John Edward Taylor in 1821, and was first published on May 5 of that year. The paper's intention was the promotion of the liberal interest in the aftermath of the Peterloo Massacre and the growing campaign to repeal the Corn Laws that flourished in Manchester during this period. The Guardian was published weekly until 1836 when it was published on Wednesday and Saturday becoming a daily in 1855, when the abolition of Stamp Duty on newspapers permitted a subsequent reduction in cover price (to 2d) allowed the paper to be published daily.

The Guardian achieved national and international recognition under the editorship of CP Scott, who held the post for 57 years from 1872. Scott bought the paper in 1907 following the death of Taylors son, and pledged that the principles laid down in the founder's will would be upheld by retaining the independence of the newspaper. CP Scott outlined those principals in a much-quoted article written to celebrate the centenary of the paper: "Comment is free, but facts are sacred... The voice of opponents no less than that of friends has a right to be heard."



After retiring from an active role in managing and editing the paper, Scott passed control to his two sons, John Russell Scott as manager and Edward Taylor Scott as editor. Realising that the future independence of the paper would be jeopardised in the event of the death of one or the other, the two sons made an agreement that in the event of either's death, one would buy the other's share.

CP Scott died in 1932 and was followed only four months later by Edward, so sole ownership fell to JR Scott. Faced with the potential of crippling death duties and the predatory interest of competitors, Scott contemplated a radical move to ensure the future of both the Guardian and the highly profitable Manchester Evening News. He concluded that the only solution was to give away his inheritance, a far-reaching solution which provoked close advisor (and future Lord Chancellor) Gavin Simonds to conclude: "you are trying to do something which is very repugnant to the law of England. You are trying to divest yourself of a property right."

In June 1936, JR Scott formally passed ownership of the paper to the trustees of the Scott Trust. As well as pledging to ensure the radical editorial tradition of the paper (that the newspaper "shall be conducted in the future on the same lines and in the same spirit as heretofore", in the words of the founder's legacy), the Scott Trust also has the duty to maintain a secure financial footing for the business: "...to devote the whole of the surplus profits of the Company which would otherwise have been available for dividends...towards building up the reserves of the Company and increasing the circulation of and expanding and improving the newspapers." These principles remain the only instructions given to an incoming editor of the Guardian, though the Scott family retained an interest in the running of the company until 1984, when, aged 70, Richard F Scott retired from the chairmanship of the Trust.

As the influence of the Manchester Guardian grew beyond its Northern hinterland, a new challenge

faced the paper under the editorship of AP Wadsworth, who took over the post in 1944. The limited number of pages in the paper, poor quality of the printing and sometimes peculiar news agenda were once perceived as part of the regional charm of the paper. In comparison to the other papers on Fleet Street, however, the Guardian's eccentric virtues often seemed to be outweighed by its peculiar idiosyncrasies: the absence of horse racing, high-handed moral posturing and woolly leaders.

Alongside the Daily Telegraph and the Times, the Guardian lacked resources (despite costing 1d more a day), and an approach to commercial activity that could be charitably described as naive did not help matters. On the first day of the Chatterley trial, the Guardian carried a front page advertisement for the Telegraph "the paper you can trust", which "provides all you can want in a newspaper" — and at a cheaper cover price too.

The editor of the paper moved to London in 1964, committing the Guardian to an uncertain future in the national market, and shortly afterwards financial problems came to a head. The paper relied heavily on the Manchester Evening News for financial support, and in the mid-60s the threat to the paper's future grew severe enough for the chairman of the Scott Trust, Laurance Scott, to approach the Times to discuss the possibility of a merger. The Times was in a similarly perilous financial situation, and many were of the opinion that there was only room for one competitor to the Telegraph. Eventually the talks came to nothing, but not before a serious examination of the logistics involved had been considered on both sides. Alastair Hetherington, the editor at this time, remained a staunch advocate of the Guardian's independence, and the modern paper owes much to his leadership and vision during this period.

Investment in printing and the completion of a move to improved offices in London in 1976 helped consolidate the Guardian's position, aided by an expansion programme that included the revamping of the Guardian Weekly to include content from both the Washington Post and Le Monde. In the increasingly polarised political climate of the late 70s and early 80s the Guardian's position as the voice of the left was unchallenged. The opinion pages were the birthplace of the SDP, and the letters page was where the battle for the future direction of the Labour Party was played out, while the coverage of industrial disputes including the 1984-1985 Miners' Strike defined the paper's position.

The status quo among the quality press was irrevocably altered by the launch of the Independent in 1986. Capturing the centre ground between the Guardian on the left and the Times and Telegraph on the right, the Independent attracted big name writers and readers with a modern design and distribution network that made the most of the post-union market. Within a few years the circulation of the Independent rose to within touching distance of both the Times and the Guardian, and the previously stagnant market was provoked into a frenzy of defensive activity to retain readers.

In 1988 the Guardian made a bold and innovative attempt to reassert its position on Fleet Street, with a major redesign that began the modern period of success in the history of the paper.

In 1993 the intensely competitive broadsheet market was again thrown into confusion by the reduction of the cover price of the Times, firstly from 45p to 30p, then again in June 1994 from 30p to 20p. As the Times attracted readers, first the Daily Telegraph and then the Independent followed suit, running at substantial losses as they battled to survive. Throughout this period the Guardian remained at full price, investing resources in journalism and distancing itself from the price war through distinctive and innovative marketing, product development and consistently breaking big stories.

During these years the paper has increased its circulation, remained commercially successful and achieved critical acclaim for both the quality of its journalism and the innovation, both consistently followed by its competitors.

The Guardian was at the forefront of the sleaze revelations that contributed to the downfall of the Conservative government in 1997, with a series of investigations into the affairs of Tory MPs, including Jonathan Aitken and Neil Hamilton.

This reputation was cemented by the collapse of the libel case brought against the paper by former Minister Jonathan Aitken. Aitken was convicted of perjury and jailed in June 1999, and the investigations won the Guardian critical acclaim from all sides - including the prestigious Newspaper of the Year Award in both 1997 and 1998.

In 1997 the Guardian became the first national newspaper to appoint a readers' editor, producer of the daily Corrections and Clarifications column.

The Guardian Unlimited network of websites was launched in January 1999. By March 2001 GU had over 2.4 million unique users, making it the most popular UK newspaper website.

On September 12 2005 the new Berliner Guardian launched, with a ground-breaking design in a mid-size format. The Guardian became the UK's first full-colour national newspaper, and the first UK national newspaper ever to adopt this size.

December 2008 marked a significant point in the history of the Guardian when the paper moved to a brand new building in King's Cross after 32 years in its Farringdon headquarters.

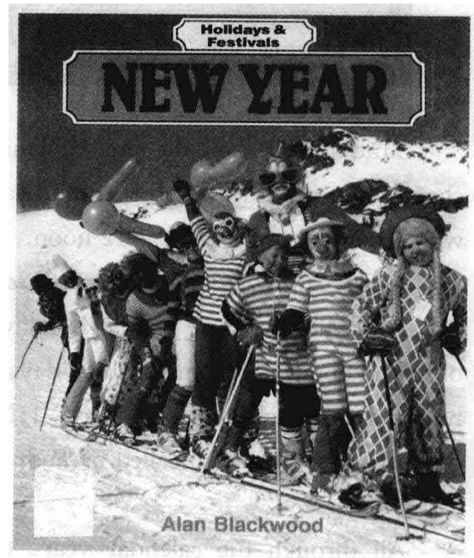
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Useful Websites

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Chapter 13
Holidays and Festivals



导 读
Introduction

英国是个文化传统非常浓郁的国家。一年中有许多宗教节日和法定假日。宗教节日有我们熟悉的圣诞节、复活节等,还有许多英国人喜爱、但并没有被广泛宣传的节日,如圣大卫日等。本章选择从宗教文化背景入手,以一年 12 个月为线索为学习者呈现全新的英国节假日版图,充分介绍不同节日的文化、历史和宗教背景知识。英国人非常热爱庆祝节假日,也很喜欢利用节假日旅游,和朋友一起短途旅行或家庭游。节假日对于英国人而言是非常重要的。所以要了解英国社会文化,节假日是不可忽视的。

Ⅰ. Religious Background

Just over three-quarters of the UK population reported having a religion. More than seven out of ten people said that their religion was Christian (72 per cent). After Christianity, Islam was the most common faith with nearly 3 per cent describing their religion as Muslim (1.6 million). The next largest religious groups were Hindus (around 559 thousand), followed by Sikhs (336 thousand), Jews (267 thousand), Buddhists (152 thousand), and people from other religions (179 thousand). These groups each accounted for less than 1 per cent and together accounted for a further 3 per cent of the UK population.

Due to this religious background, there are certain important religious festivals we will cover in this chapter. Apart from religious festivals, we will also look at national holidays which constitute another important part of national holiday and festival.

We will go through those must-celebrate holidays according to the calendar.

January

British, historically, used to use Roman calendar, which only had ten months starting from March. January and February were added later on. January, in Roman mythology, is named after Janus (God of the doorway), who has two faces guarding the past and the future.





Traditionally, on the first of January, more than ten thousand dancers, acrobats, musicians and cheerleaders would assemble in the heart of the city London for the celebration of the New Year coming with the strike of Big Ben at 12 noon.

***Bank Holidays* (*Public holiday*)**

Bank holidays are public holidays in the United Kingdom. Before 1834, the Bank of England observed about thirty-three saints' days and religious festivals as holidays, But starting in 1834, only four holidays were celebrated: 1 May, 1 November, Good Friday, and Christmas Day. Bank holidays are often supposed to be so called because they are days upon which banks are shut, but this is not in fact the case today.

All through the calendar year, there might be several bank holidays which coincide with other religious holidays.



Twelfth Night* (*Religious Holiday*) *Jan. 5th

Twelfth Night is on the January 5th, and it is the day on which all the Christmas decorations should be removed. Because people believe that if the Christmas decorations to be left untended, bad luck will then be brought to the family.

Traditional Christmas decorations are greenery like ivy. People use these leaves to make up rings and hang them on the door. They believe these leaves are possessed by spirits who will protect the family for the new coming year. But if the spirits are not to be released after Christmas, they would bring the bad luck then.

Twelfth Night is also the annual celebration held at Shakespeare Globe (a theatre) at the Bankside, London. The performers from the Shakespeare Globe would stage the celebration, which is accessible for all on whatever the season.



February

As mentioned previously, February was added to the Ancient Roman calendar. The word "February" comes from

"februa", which means cleaning or purification.

Candlemas Day

The 2nd of February is Candlemas Day, which is to mark the middle of winter, halfway through winter to spring. Traditionally, 2nd of February is the day on which all the candles to be used in the coming year in churches are bought. That's why the festival was named as Candlemas. Candles have always been considered important not only because there was no electricity but people believed that candles can protect them from illness. For Christians, candles symbolically remind them of Jesus, who brought people in the darkness into the lighted world. Candles are lit in churches even today to remind people of this.

***Shrove Tuesday* (*Pancake Day*) (*Religious Festival*)**

Shrove Tuesday, which is also known as Pancake Day, is the last day before the period which all Christian call Lent. Lent is also a Christian festival, which used to be a long, strict religious fast when people gave up all rich food. But today, Christian church does not have a strict fast. Lent then becomes the time for Christians to overcome their own faults.

Because Lent is the time when rich food is given up. Therefore, Shrove Tuesday is the last time to indulge oneself. Pancakes are eaten on this day because it contains fat, eggs and butter which are forbidden in the Lent.

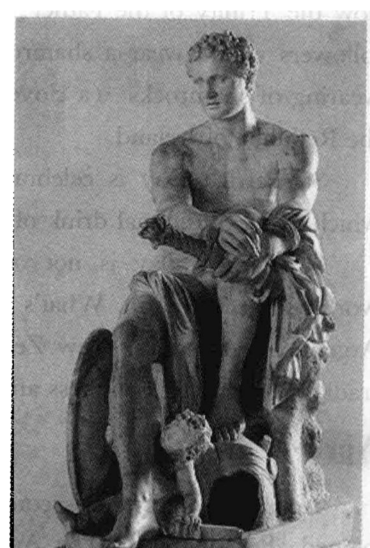
Shrove Tuesday often falls 47 days before Easter Sunday, so the dates vary from year to year. Shrove comes from the word "shrive", meaning to confess. On the Shrove Tuesday in the middle ages, people would confess their sin so that they would have been forgiven before the Lent began.

***Ash Wednesday* (*the start of Lent*, *Christian festival*)**

As we discussed that Shrove Tuesday (Christian carnival day on the eve of Ash Wednesday), Ash Wednesday is the beginning of 40-day period of Lent. In Christian churches, there are services in which ashes are used to mark a cross on people's foreheads. Some Christian would stop eating rich food and use this period time to overcome their own weakness.

March

The name of March comes from ancient Rome, when March was the first month of the year. It was named Martius after Mars, the Roman god of war, who was the son of Juno and Jupiter. He was the most prominent of the military gods and was worshipped by Roman legion.



***St. David's Day* (*1st March*) (*The National Day of Wales*)**

St. David's Day is the feast day of Saint Davis, the patron saint of Wales. As a Christianity practice, the calendar of saints is a traditional Christian way to associate dates with one or more saints and refer to the day as the saints' feast day. This system could be dated back to the very early Christian custom of annual commemoration of martyrs on the dates of their deaths, or birth into heaven.

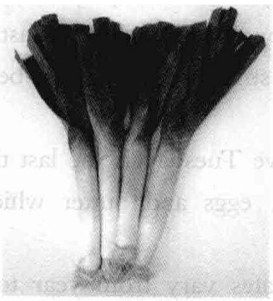
A patron saint is a saint who is considered as the intercessor and advocate in heaven of a nation. Patron saints, because they have already

transcended to the metaphysical, are able to intercede effectively for the needs of their special charges. St. David is the patron saint of Wales. St David was a Celtic monk, abbot and bishop, who lived in the sixth century. He spread the word of Christianity across Wales.

The most famous story about Saint David describes how he was preaching to a huge crowd and the ground is said to have risen up, so that he was standing on a hill and everyone had a better chance of hearing him.

Every year, on 1st March, parades are held in Wales to commemorate St. David. The largest of these is held in Cardiff. To celebrate, people wear a symbol of leeks or daffodils. They are the national emblems of Wales.

On St. David's Day, children would dress in traditional Wales's dressing, which includes a tall black hat, white frilled cap and long dress.



Leek



Daffodils



National dress

St. Patrick's Day (***17th March***) (***The National Day of Northern Ireland***)

Saint Patrick's Day, also St. Paddy's Day or simply Paddy's Day, is an annual feast day which celebrates Saint Patrick, the most commonly recognized of the patron saints of Ireland, and is generally celebrated on 17th of March.

Saint Patrick was born in Wales, and he was later carried away by pirates and then in slavery for six years. After his escapement, he started missionary.

The national emblem of Ireland is the Shamrock. Patrick used the three-leaved shamrock to explain how the Trinity of the Father, Son and Holy Spirit could exist as separate parts of the same being. His followers would wear a shamrock or the symbol of it in celebration. St Patrick's day is marked by the wearing of shamrocks (a clover-like plant), which is the national emblem of both Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland.

St. Patrick Day is celebrated by holding big parades and wearing green and drinking Guinness, which is the traditional drink of Ireland.

St. Patrick Day is not only celebrated in the North Ireland in Britain, however, it enjoys a worldwide celebration. What's more, it is increasingly celebrated by people of other ethnicities, namely Argentina, Australia, New Zealand and North America. Celebrations are normally following the Irish tradition, drinking Guinness and wearing green.

April

April, originally the second month in Roman calendar, is sacred to Venus as Roman months were named after divinities. The Anglo-Saxons called April Oster-monath or Eostur-monath, which was also

considered as the root of the word Easter.

April Fool's Day (***or All Fool's Day***) (***1st April***)

April Fool's Day currently is celebrated in many countries. The day is famous for the commission of hoaxes and other practical jokes of diversifying sophistication on friends, family members, enemies, and neighbors, or sending them on a fool's errand, the aim of which is to embarrass the gullible. The origin of April Fool's Day is obscure,

One possible explanation is that the modern holiday was first celebrated soon after the adoption of the new calendar — Gregorian Calendar. For those who still insisted on to the old calendar were called April fools. In many pre-Christian cultures May Day (May 1) was celebrated as the first day of summer, and marked the start of the spring planting season. An April Fool may have been someone who did this prematurely.

Another possible origin refers to the fact that when King Charles IX of France officially changed the first day of the year from April 1 to January 1, but some of his subjects continued using the old system. In the eighteenth century the festival was often posited as going back to the time of Noah. According to an English newspaper article published April 13, 1789, the day had its origin when Noah sent his dove off too early, before the waters had receded; he did this on the first day of the Hebrew month that corresponds with April.



Photograph of a woman harvesting spaghetti in the BBC programme

Famous April Fool's jokes in history:

- Spaghetti trees: The BBC television programme Panorama ran a famous hoax in 1957, showing Italians harvesting spaghetti from trees. They had claimed that the despised pest, the spaghetti weevil, had been eradicated. A large number of people contacted the BBC wanting to know how to cultivate their own spaghetti trees. It was, in fact, filmed in St Albans.
- Tower of Pisa: The Dutch television news reported in the 1950s that the Tower of Pisa had fallen over. Many shocked people contacted the station.
- Phone call: In 1998, UK presenter Nic Tuff of West Midlands radio station Kix 96 pretended to be the British Prime Minister Tony Blair when he called the then South African President Nelson Mandela for a chat. It was only at the end of the call when Nic asked Nelson what he was doing for April Fools' Day that the line went dead.

Do remember that it's a tradition that you can only play jokes on others before midday. At the midday, the practical jokes must stop or the joker will be told:

"April fool's day is past and gone
You are the fool and I am none."

Palm Sunday (***Christian Festival***)

Palm Sunday is the sixth and last Sunday of Lent and the beginning of Holy Week, which is the week before Easter. Palm Sunday is a moveable date according to the calendar. It's also a feast festival held to commemorate the successful entry of Jesus into Jerusalem. It is also called Palm Sunday of the Lord's Passion.

In most Christian churches, Palm Sunday is the date on which palm leaves would be distributed, in

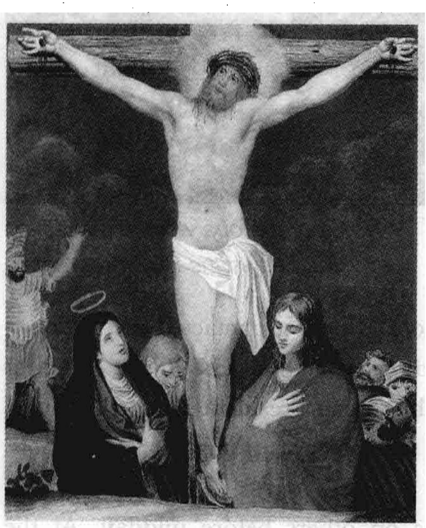
most cases tied into the shape of crosses, to the assembled worshipers. According to the Gospels, before entering Jerusalem, Jesus stayed at Bethany and Bethphage. The Gospel of John says that he had dinner with Lazarus, and his sisters Mary and Martha. While there, Jesus sent two disciples to the village over against them in hopes to get a donkey which had been tied up but never been ridden, and if questioned, to say that the donkey was requested by the Lord but would be returned. Jesus then rode the donkey into Jerusalem. The Gospels go on to account how Jesus rode into Jerusalem, and how the people there lay down small branches of trees, part of Psalm. Great number of people lined the streets waving palm branches to welcome him. The people were very excited. They spread branches of palm trees on the road and even laid down their clothes. They shouted "Hosanna! " which means "Save us Now! "

On Palm Sunday today, children are given crosses made from single palm leaves. Traditionally, many churches will have a procession in or around the church while people sing songs of praise and wave palm leaves. This is to help them imagine what Jesus' entry into Jerusalem might have been like.

***Good Friday* (*or Holy Friday*)**

Good Friday is also called Holy Friday, Great Friday or Black Friday. It is a holiday observed mainly by Christians who commemorate the crucifixion of Jesus and his death at Calvary. The holiday is celebrated during Holy Week on the Friday proceeding Easter Sunday.

The crucifixion of Jesus was most possibly on a Friday and the estimated year of Good Friday of Jesus was in AD 33. According to the accounts in the Gospels, Jesus was arrested in the Garden of



Gethsemane by the Temple Guards through the guidance of his disciple, Judas Iscariot. Judas received money for betraying Jesus and told the guards that whomever he kisses is the one they were to arrest. After the arrest, Jesus was then brought to be questioned, and he answered nothing. At the end the high priest adjured Jesus to respond under solemn oath, saying "I adjure you, by the Living God, to tell us, are you the Anointed One, the Son of God? " Jesus testified in the affirmative, "You have said it, and in time you will see the Son of Man seated at the right hand of the Almighty, coming on the clouds of Heaven." The high priest condemned Jesus for blasphemy, and sentenced Jesus to death.

Jesus then carried the cross to the site of execution, which was called the place of the Skull, or "Golgotha" in Hebrew and "Calvary" in Latin. There he was crucified together with other two criminals. Jesus agonized on the cross for six hours. During his last three hours on the cross, there was darkness over the whole land. With a loud cry, Jesus gave up his spirit. There was then an earthquake, tombs broke open, and the curtain in the Temple was torn from top to bottom.

Good Friday derives from "God's Friday". It is then called "good" because the sin is removed. Since the early 19th century, before the introduction of bank holidays, Good Friday and Christmas Day were the only two days of leisure which were mostly granted to working people. Good Friday today is a public holiday in UK, and most businesses are closed on this day.

People today would normally do the following things on Good Friday:

1. Fasting

Some Christians fast (go without food) on Good Friday. This helps them remember the sacrifice Jesus made for them on the day of crucifixion.

2. Procession

Some Christians take part in a procession of witness, carrying a cross through the streets and then into church.

3. Special Church Service

Many churches hold a special service. This may be a communion service in the evening or a time of prayer during the day, especially around 3 o'clock as that is about the time of day when Jesus died. Many Churches hold services lasting three hours. They may celebrate the Stations of the Cross, or take part in Passion plays and dramatic readings. Churches are not decorated on Good Friday. In some churches, pictures and statues are covered over. It is seen as a time of mourning.



4. Special Food on Good Friday

Traditionally, people would eat warm hot cross buns on Good Friday. The cross on the bun symbolically reminds people of the cross on which Jesus was crucified.

Easter Sunday (Easter Day)

Easter is the most important annual feast for the Christians. According to Christian scripture, Jesus was resurrected from the death on the third day from his crucifixion. Christians then celebrate this resurrection on Easter Day or Easter Sunday, which is also called Resurrection Day or Resurrection Sunday. Easter includes Maundy Thursday (the Last supper leading to the Eucharist), Good Friday (the day on which Jesus was crucified) and Easter Day (the day on which Jesus came back to life). Easter also refers to the season of the church year called Eastertide or the Easter Season, which traditionally lasted for the forty days from Easter Day. Easter also marks the end of Lent, a period of fasting, prayer, and penance.

Easter is a moveable feast because the date of Easter changes every year. Easter Sunday usually falls on any date between 22 March and 25 April. This is because the holiday is based on the lunar calendar instead of the solar one. Easter usually falls on the first Sunday following the full Moon after 21 March.

Today, Christians gather together on Easter Sunday for a Sunrise Service, which is normally held on a hillside so that everyone can see the sun rise. Some Christians participate in an Easter vigil, lighting a new fire outside the church early on Sunday morning. And to light the Paschal candle celebrates Christ's wounds. Some churches have an Easter garden in which a stone is placed across the mouth of a tomb before Easter, and then rolled away on Easter morning.

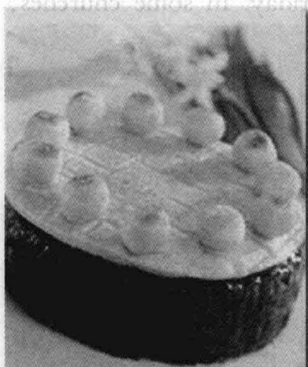
The traditional gift on Easter is a chocolate egg. It is said that the first eggs given at Easter were birds eggs. These eggs were painted in bright colors to give them further meaning as a gift.

As chocolate became more popular in the 20th century, the chocolate version of the traditional painted egg was developed. It is a popular activity as well to hide chocolate eggs at home for children to

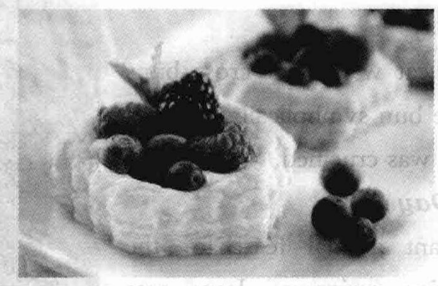


find, which is called Easter Egg Hunt. In recent years, this game has been linked to the Easter Bunny, which arrived in England not for a very long time.

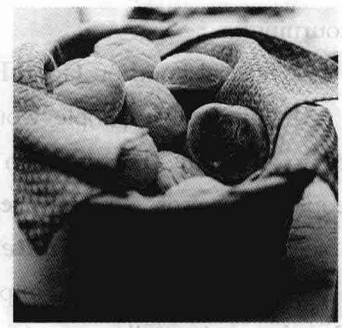
There are other special food served on Easter Sunday. Boiled eggs would be the most popular and traditional one, and they could be exchanged as gifts. Roast lamb, which is the main course at Jewish Passover, is the traditional meal on Easter Day. It would mainly be served with mint sauce and vegetables. Custard tarts, flat Easter biscuits and simnel cake are all very famous Easter desserts.



Simnel Cake



Custard tart



Easter biscuits

Easter Monday (***UK Public Holiday***)

Easter Monday is the day after Easter Sunday, which is celebrated as a holiday in Christian community. Formerly, the Easter festivities prolonged a whole week of secular celebration, but this was then reduced to one day in the 19th century. Events like egg rolling competition, dousing others with water (traditionally had been blessed with holy water the day before Easter Sunday) would be carried out.

Egg rolling is very popular in England and the rest of UK. Hard-boiled eggs are rolled down a hill on Easter Monday. Customs may differ from place to place. The winner would be the one who rolls the egg the longest distance or survives the most rolls.

The Hare Pie Scramble and bottle kicking would by an unruly game. Small wooden barrels filled with ale are used as rugby balls in the no-holds barrel contest.



St. George's Day (***23rd April***) (***The National Day of England***)

St. George's Day is observed by several nations, kingdoms, and cities of which Saint George is the patron saint, including England, Germany. St. George's Day is known as the Feast of St. George and is celebrated in the Monastery of St. George. For England, St. George's Day is also the National Day because St. George is the patron saint of England. The

traditional custom on this day is to wear a red rose in one's lapel, and also to fly or adorn the St. George's Cross flag in some way. This is also a day on which people would go out and build a fire and play around it. People would bless their houses, fields, children and everything around them with water, which is considered holy.



One of the best-known stories about Saint George is his fight with a dragon. And St. George is known throughout the world as the dragon-slaying patron saint of England.

May

May is the fifth month of the year in the Gregorian Calendar and one of seven Gregorian months with the length of 31 days. Its name comes from the Greek Goddess Maia, who was identified with the Roman era goddess of fertility, Bona Dea.

May Day (***1st May***)

May Day falls on May 1st and is referred to as public holiday. In many countries, May Day is synonymous with International Workers' Day, or Labour Day, which is an officially nominated date to demonstrate respect for the labour union.

May Day marks the end of cold winter and is traditionally considered as an occasion for popular celebrations. As Europe became Christianized, the pagan holidays were losing their religious characters and either changed into popular secular celebrations, such as May Day, or merged with new Christian holidays (e.g. Christmas, Easter and All Saint's Day). The earliest May Day celebrations took place in pre-Christian, as the festival of Flora, the Roman Goddess of flowers. Presently May Day might be best known for its tradition of dancing the Maypole and crowning the Queen of the May.

This day was also a traditional summer holiday in many pre-Christian European pagan cultures. February 1st is the first day of Spring, and May 1st is the first day of summer. In the Roman Catholic tradition, May is observed as Mary's month, and in this culture, May Day is a celebration of the Blessed Virgin Mary. Mary's head will often be adorned with flowers on May Day.

Nowadays, the month of May enjoys many traditional and religious celebrations. For the convenience of the public, many May Day activities have been moved to the new May Day holiday on the first Monday of the month. This Monday is a bank holiday, a day off school and work.

Maypole Dancing

Ascension Day (***Christian Festival***)

Ascension Day is the day on which Jesus ascends to Heaven in the presence of his Eleven Apostles following his resurrection, and where he sits at the right hand of God the Father. The most influential account of the Ascension is in the Acts of the Apostles where Jesus is taken up bodily into heaven forty days after his resurrection as witnessed by his apostles, after giving the Great Commission. In the Gospel of Luke, the Ascension takes place on Easter Sunday evening. The ending of Mark includes a summary



of Luke's resurrection material and describes Jesus as being taken up into heaven and sitting at God's right hand. The imagery of Jesus' Ascension is related to the broader theme of his exaltation and heavenly welcome.

The Ascension is one of the great feasts in the Christian liturgical calendar, and commemorates the bodily Ascension of Jesus into heaven. Ascension Day is officially celebrated on a Thursday (the fortieth day from Easter Day). Certain food would be served on the Ascension Day, such as the blessing of beans and grapes after the Commemoration. The English also has the custom of carrying at the head of the procession the banner bearing the device of the lion and at the foot of the banner of the dragon, to symbolize the triumph of Christ in his ascension over the evil one. In some churches the scene of the Ascension would be performed by vividly elevating the figure of Christ above the altar through an opening in the roof of the church. For worshippers, the ascend of the Christ means the descend of the evil.

June and July

June is believed generally to have the name after the Roman goddess Juno, who is the wife of Jupiter and equivalent to the Greek goddess Hera. June is the month with the longest daylight hours of the year in the Northern Hemisphere and the shortest daylight hours of the year in the Southern Hemisphere. That's why June is generally considered to be the marker of Summer, when the Sun is at it's most northern point in the sky, which makes the Sun rise around 4:30 am and the Sun set around 9:30 pm in Britain.

July is usually the warmest days in Britain, and it's the time for traveling and sun tanning.

Trooping the Color (***second Saturday of June***)

Trooping the Color is a ceremony performed by regiments of the Commonwealth and the British Army. This activity has been a tradition carried on since the 17th century. It has been said that the origin should be traced back on the battlefields where infantries used different flags to rally points. Therefore, regiments would have their won ensigns to march with their colors and to mark out the soldiers' ranks making it easier for soldiers to recognize their regiments' colors. The color of different regiment's is believed to embody the spirit. Since 1748, Trooping the Color has also been officially marked birthday of the British Sovereign and has occurred annually since 1820. From the reign of King Edward VII, the Sovereign has taken the salute in person. It was Edward VII who decided to move this day to June due to the weather condition in Britain.

Trooping the Color is an old ceremony and it is also known by the public as Carrying the Flag. It has the Hoursehold Division, which means the Foot Guards and the Household Cavalry, and King's Troop to pay a personal tribute to the Sovereign. Today, this special day is considered mostly to be the celebration of the Birthday of Queen Elizabeth II with the tremendous parade by military. And this parade is the biggest Royal event of the year. The parade goes from Buckingham Palace along The Mall to Horseguards Parade, Whitehall and back to the Buckingham Palace again. Crowds would line the route and listen to music performed by Massed and Mounted Bands of around 400 musicians altogether.



The Queen has attended Trooping the Color in every year of her reign except one in 1955 when there was a rail strike. Her Majesty started riding in a carriage in 1987. The Queen's 80th birthday in 2006 was celebrated with a large flypast of 40 planes led by the Battle of Britain Memorial Flight.

Tynwald Day **(*5th July*)**

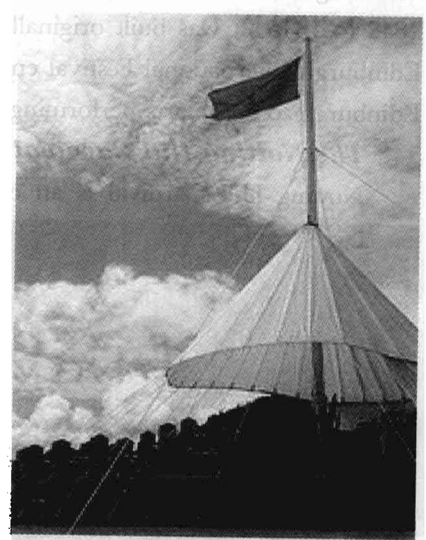
Tynwald Day is the National Day of the Isle of Man, normally falls on 5th July. Tynwald is normally believed by the Isle of Man to be the oldest parliament in continuous existence, which could date back to 979 and have continued to be observed till today. It traditionally occurred on 24th June, which is also the feast day of Saint John and Midsummer's Day. In 1753, the Isle of Man chose to replace the Julian Calendar with the Gregorian Calendar after Great Brain did so. The change of the calendar then made the move of eleven days, therefore, currently Tynawald Day is normally on 5th July. If Tynwald Day falls on a Saturday or Sunday, it would be then commemorated on the next Monday.

Tynwald, or the High Court of Tynwald, is the bicameral legislature of the Isle of Man. It consists of House of Keys, which is directly elected and the Legislative Council, the indirectly chosen one. The houses would sit jointly on Tynwald Day in St. John's or in the Legislative Buildings in Douglas. The meeting firstly recorded in 1417, which is known as "Midsummer Court." All the bills which have received the Royal Assent would be promulgated on Tynwald Day. And any Act of Tynwald which is not promulgated within eighteen months of passage ceases to have effect. Other proceedings like presentation of petitions and the swearing-in of certain public officials would also be included on this day.

Before the Houses sit, the Guard of Honour would be inspected and a wreath would be laid at the National War Memorial. At eleven o'clock, Tynwald convenes in the Chapel of St. John the Baptist for a religious service. Then, they would proceed to Tynwald Hill through the path. The route is lined with two kinds of flags, the red national flag and the blue parliamentary flag. The first procession includes clergymen and certain government officials and is followed by the second one, the Tynwald Courd Procession.

August and September

Originally, August was named Sextilis in Latin, because it was the sixth month in the original ten-month Roman calendar, when March was the first month of the year. About 700 BC January and February were added to the year. It was then renamed in honor of Augustus. "Septem", in Latin, means "seven" and septimus means "seventh". September was originally the seventh month of the Roman calendar, when the first month changed from Kalendas Martius (1 March) to Kalendas Januarius (1 January). September begins on the



Tynwald Hill before the Tynwald Day proceedings

same day of the week as December every year, because there are 91 days separating September and December, which is a multiple of seven (the number of days in the week).

The Edinburgh Festival Fringe (***August***)

The Edinburgh Festival Fringe is considered to be the largest arts festival in the world. It was firstly established in 1947. Every year Scotland's capital celebrates this festival for three weeks in August together with several other arts and cultural festivals, known as the Edinburgh Festival, and of which the Fringe is the largest. The Edinburgh Festival Fringe mostly holds events from the performing arts, theatre and comedy to dancing and music. William Shakespear and Samuel Beckett's work would be performed together with new works produced lately. Because there is no committee to prove the entries, so any type of event is possible and anyone who is interested in it can perform. People can organize a stage by contacting the Edinburgh Festival Fringe Society.

The Fringe firstly started in 1947 when eight theatre companies were uninvited to the inaugural Edinburgh International Festival. These companies wished to take advantage of theatre crowds. The Fringe then came into being the following year. There was no organization initially until students of the University of Edinburgh set up a drop-by centre and it was in 1955 when there was the first central booking service.

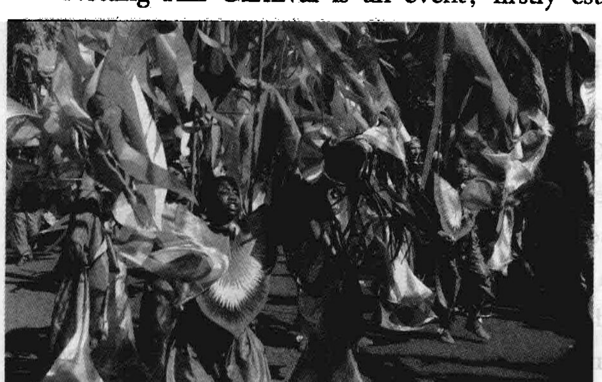
Edinburgh International Festival (***August***)

The Edinburgh International Festival is a celebration of performing arts taking place in the city of Edinburgh, Scotland for three weeks in August. It holds music, especially classical music, theatre, opera and dance from all over the world to perform different styles of arts during this festival. The first festival took place in 1947 with the spirit to provide a platform for the booming of the human spirit and to enrich the culture of Scotland, Britain and Europe. The founders of this festival includes Rudolf Bing, who was the General Manager of Glyndebourne Opera Festival, Henry Harvey Wood, the Head of the British Council in Scotland, Sidney Newman, Reid Professor of Music at Edinburgh University, and a group of civic leaders.

Every year The Edinburgh International Festival would be held at the Hub, which was designed by Edinburgh architect Gillespie Graham and the gothic revivalist Augustus Pugin and constructed during 1842 to 1845. It was built originally as the Church of Scotland and known as Victoria Hall. Today, the Edinburgh International Festival enjoys worldwide popularity. People book the tickets online and travel to Edinburgh to enjoy arts performing.

The Notting Hill Carnival (***August***)

Notting Hill Carnival is an event, firstly established in 1964, which takes place at Notting Hill, London every year in August. It lasts for two days, on the August bank holiday. The celebration is led by the Caribbean people, who have lived in the area since the 1950s. This carnival firstly began in January, 1959 in St Pancras Town Hall. It was at that time the UK's first racial attack, the Notting Hill race riots, occurred in 1958. The carnival was held then as a response to the situation and then moved to August in 1965.



Carnival was in history connected with riots, especially Caribbean young fellows fighting with police. It was because of this reason; it looked as if the event would be banned. However, due to Caribbean people's participation and exotic flavor of this festival, it attracted ten of thousands of people from different places to enjoy the festival. In recent years, the event has been much more culturally popular instead of its former negative taste.

Blackpool Illuminations (***September***)

Blackpool Illuminations is a lights festival, firstly celebrated on 18 September, 1879, which was then held every year in Blackpool, a seaside resort, on the Fylde Coast in Lancashire. The festival runs for sixty six days every year, from last August or early September to early November, when most English seaside resorts' seasons are closing to an end. The lights firstly shone in 1879 with only twelve Arc Lamps shining over the Promenade as the event observing Thomas Edison's patent of the electric light bulb. And the first display of illuminations, similar to the modern day displays, was held in 1912 because it was the first visit Royal family made to Blackpool. It was then requested by the local Chamber of trade and other local businesses to stage the event in September, and the subsequent event was a huge success that in 1913 the council decided to stage the lights as a season event. However, due to the First World War, there were no displays until 1925. And it was further interrupted in 1939 due to the outbreak of World War II.



Illuminations on Blackpool promenade

Today, people would see the display along the Promenade from Starr Gate at the south end of the town to Bispham in the north, which runs around six miles with beautiful lights shining the area day and night.

Great River Race

The Great River Race is an annual competition held on the River Thames. It is festival welcomes any traditional styles coxed boat powered by oars or paddles. The race firstly started in 1988 with a race around 22 miles on the Thames between Ham, London and Greenwich. Usually, the competition is held on a Saturday in September. Many boat racers are attracted to join the competition as well as amateur racers. The rules require that each boat must be moved by oars or paddles and have a cox and a passenger. The competition is also dependent on the tide and usually rowed downstream on the outgoing tide. However, 2009 is the first year in which the competition rowed upstream on an incoming tide.



October and November

October is the tenth month of the year in the Gregorian Calendar and the eighth month in the

Roman Calendar. The word October comes from the Latin "octo", meaning "eight". November embodies the meaning "nine" from the Latin "novem" (when January and February were added to the calendar.)

Trafalgar Day

This is the celebration of the victory by the Royal Navy over the fleets joined by French and Spanish navies at the Battle of Trafalgar on 21 October, 1805. The Royal Navy was commanded by Vice-Admiral Horatio Nelson at that time, which was then known as Nelson's legacy, and the celebration was held in Trafalgar Square.

Nelson was born in a moderately prosperous family, and joined the navy due to the influence of his uncle. He was promoted quickly through the ranks and served with the leading naval commanders before gaining his own command in 1778. He was famous for his mastery of tactics and strategies, but suffered illness and tentative unemployment after then. He went back to the service when the French Revolutionary Wars broke out. He then fought in several wars, during which he soon developed firm command and then engaged in the Battle of Trafalgar, which was the Britain's greatest naval victory. However, the tragedy was that Nelson was hit by a French sharpshooter and ended his life at this victory. His body was brought back to England where a state funeral was conducted. Nelson was famous for his ability to inspire his troops and his command of strategies and tactics won him several victories.



Horatio Nelson (1758-1805) British flag officer in the Royal Navy. He won several victories, including the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805.

Today, the Trafalgar Day is celebrated by parades, feasts and other events. The word "Trafalgar" is from the Arabic Taraf, meaning side and al-Aghar, meaning victory — which makes the combination of "side of victory". The public celebration was reduced due to people's different understanding of war, especially after World War I and World War II. Even though, Trafalgar Day is still a public day observed by British people.

Today, this day is usually celebrated with a parade. In Birmingham, the celebration is normally a ceremony at the statue of Lord Nelson, which is the oldest statue to the Lord Nelson in the UK. The celebration would be led by the Lord Mayor of Birmingham and Sea Cadet units.

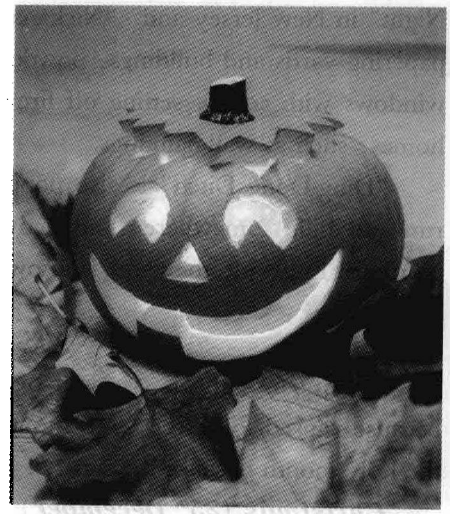
Halloween

Halloween is the annual holiday observed on 31 October. It is a traditionally Celtic festival of Samhain and the Christian holy day of All Saints.

Historically, Celts were a diverse group of tribal societies in Iron Age Europe. Celts expanded over a wide range of lands, as far west as Ireland and east as Galatia and north as Scotland. With the Roman rule in the history, unconquered areas of Ireland and Scotland moved from Celtic polytheism to Celtic Christianity in the fifth century AD. Ireland was converted with the missions conducted by St. Patrick.

Samhain means "summer's end", from sam (meaning summer) and fuin (end). It is a festival held normally on October 21 or November 1, with its roots in Celtic paganism. Samhain marks the end of the harvest. The celebration indicates certain features connected with the dead. The ancient Celts believed that

the line separating this world and the otherworld became slim on Samhain, therefore both harmless and harmful spirits may wander about at this period of time. The ancestors of the family would then be at this time honored while harmful spirits would be warded off. Wearing costumes and masks would be effective to ward off the harmful spirits due to the disguise of oneself.



The term "Halloween", which is also spelled out as "Hallowe'en", is the short form from All Hallows' Even. Activities celebrating Halloween include the famous trick-or-treat, wearing costume and attending costume parties.

Making jack-o'-lanterns, having ghost tours, bonfires and following a haunted tour are all interesting activities. People also enjoy telling each other terrifying stories or watch horror movies. Among these activities, trick-or-treat is most favored by young children for they would wear carefully designed costumes and knock on people's doors, speaking out loudly "trick-or-treat". Mostly trick-or-treat would be around six to seven in the evening when kids disguise themselves to knock for candies and nuts.

***All Souls' Day** (2nd November)*

All Souls' Day, in Christianity, commemorates the faithful departed, and this festival comes from the belief that, as in Christianity, when people die, they would not attain full sanctification and moral perfection; therefore this could be carried out by the prayers. All Souls' Day is also known as the Feast of All Souls. The celebration of All Souls' Day is on the second of November following All Saints' Day. However, if the second of November falls on a Sunday, All Souls' Day is then moved to the third of November.

Today, the celebration would be for families visit graves with flowers and read out the names of the dead in churches. In some churches there would be songs and other activities to remember the dead. There is also a tradition for the poor people to offer prayers for the richer families but in return they would be given 'soul cakes', which is a hot cross bun. In some places children would go 'souling', that is to sing songs like carol singing, asking for alms or soul cakes:

"A soul, a soul, a soul cake.
Please good missus a soul cake.
An apple, a pear, a plum or a chery,
Any good thing to make us merry.
Up with your kettles and down with your pans
Give us an answer and we'll be gone."

***Mischief Night** (4th November)*

Mischief Night, also known as Gate night or Devil's Night, is the night when all sorts of naughty things to be done. This is mostly celebrated in parts of England, especially for teenagers to play pranks. Presently, some places celebrate Mischief Night on Halloween, even though traditionally this day is c elebrated on the fourth of November.

Mischief Night has been transformed into different names in different places, such as "Goossey

Night" in New Jersey and "Nickanan Night" in Cornwall etc. Modern tricks are very similar, like toilet papering yards and buildings, powder-bombing and egging cars and people and homes, writing things on windows with soaps, setting off fireworks and bonfires. Some damaged could be done to buildings and homes, such as wall-paintings.

"Ding-Dong Ditch" is also popular at this time, in which doorbell would be rung and people then run and hide somewhere. This activity is also known as "Knick Knock" or "Knicker-knocking". In Northern England, the game is known as "bobby knocking".

December

December is the last month of the year in the Gregorian Calendar. In Latin, decem means 'ten' because it used to be the tenth month in Roman Calendar. In history, December was also considered as the holy month because the birth of Jesus is celebrated in this month.

Christmas (25th December)

Christmas is considered to be the most important festival in a year. It celebrates the birth of Jesus. The word Christmas comes from the phrase "Christ's Mass". In Greek, the letter "X" is the first letter of Christ; therefore, Xmas is often used in life as the abbreviation for Christmas.

Current practicing of celebration for this special day would be around the mid night on 24th, Christmas Eve. The ceremony would be held in church where people gather together listening to the singing and praying. It is also believed that Santa Claus would visit on Christmas Eve, delivering his gifts for children. Traditional meals would be served on Christmas Eve, which includes roasted turkey and Christmas pudding.



Apart from celebrations held at churches, Christmas is also a very important time when people visit families, give gifts to each other and exchange Christmas cards. Beside, Christmas decorations are very popular among families, which add more artistic and festival atmosphere. It is a tradition to make Christmas pudding with 13 ingredients representing Jesus and His Disciples and every member of the family should take turns to stir the pudding with a wooden spoon from east to west, in the honor of the Wise Men.

Christmas today is not only celebrated among Christians but by many non-Christians as a cultural festival. Due to gift-giving and special greetings to friends and families, the commercial aspects of this religion holiday have been highlighted in many other regions in the world.

Boxing Day (26th December)

Boxing Day is a bank holiday in the United Kingdom. The name "boxing" comes from the tradition when people give seasonal gifts in the "boxes". In history, people hung wooden boxes on the sidewall of churches, and in which people would donate money to be distributed to the poor. Later, "boxing" is used to refer to the day when the church opens the boxes.

Boxing Day today is the very important time for business to promote sales. And people would get very early and ready for the shopping. Boxing Day is also moveable according to the calendar because it

is also considered as the bank holiday in UK. Therefore, if it falls on a Sunday, it would then be moved to the next Monday.

Glossary

Christian 基督教的，信奉基督教的；慈善的；基督徒
Hindu 印度教教徒
Sikh 锡克教教徒 （锡克教由印度教演化而来，相信一神论，15 世纪晚期产生与旁庶普地区）
Mythology 神话，虚构的事实 ；错误的观点
Observe 庆祝，庆贺，欢度
Shakespeare Globe 环球剧场，位于伦敦，最初的环球剧场有威廉。莎士比亚所在的内阁大臣剧团组建。
Lent 大斋期，从圣灰日到复活节前的四十天。
Carnival 狂欢节，嘉年华会
Patron saint 主保，主保圣人；守护圣人
Gregorian calendar 公历，阳历，格雷果里历（自 1582 年以来西方国家使用的历法）
Crucifixion 钉死在十字架上；十字架苦像（耶稣受难的画像或艺术品）
Procession （人或车辆的）队列，行列；列队行进；游行
Eucharist （基督教）圣祭礼，圣餐，圣体，圣血
Monastery 修道院，寺院
Fringe （指群体，事情或活动）次要部分，外围
Illumination 照明，光源，彩灯，灯饰
Cox （划艇的）舵手为划艇掌舵
Vice Admiral 海军中将
Bonfire （在室外为焚烧垃圾或为庆祝而燃起的）大火堆，篝火。
Mischief 淘气，恶作剧，顽皮

Cultural Notes

The Roman calendar It changed its form several times in the time between the foundation of Rome and the fall of the Roman Empire. This article generally discusses the early Roman or "pre-Julian" calendars. The calendar used after 46 BC is discussed under Julian calendar. The calendar year lasted 304 days and there were about 61 days of winter which were not assigned to any month. The later months were named based on their position in the calendar: *Quintilis* comes from *quinque* (meaning *five*), *Sextilis* from *sex* (meaning *six*), *September* from *septem* (meaning *seven*), *October* from *octo* (meaning *eight*), *November* from *novem* (meaning *nine*) and *December* from *decem* (meaning *ten*).

Numa Pompilius, the second of the seven traditional kings of Rome, reformed the calendar of Romulus by adding January and February around 713 BC to the original ten months, although Quintilis, Sextilis, September, October, November and December no longer agreed with their position in his calendar. Although Numa wanted to have a lunar year of 354 days, Romans considered odd numbers to be lucky and even numbers unlucky, so Numa added 51 days to the 304 days in the calendar of Romulus and took one day from each of the six 30-day months giving a total of 57 days to share between January and February. January was given 29 days leaving February with the unlucky number of 28 days, suitable for the month of purification. Of the eleven months with an odd number of days, four had 31 days each and seven had 29 days each.

Questions for Discussion

1. What are the most popular religious holidays British people observe?
2. Pair in groups and discuss about the celebrating traditions for new year by comparing Chinese Spring Festival and Christmas.
3. Do you think there are any similarity between Halloween and Qing Ming Jie?
4. In this chapter, we discussed many ways to celebrate the festivals in Britain, e.g. carnival and parade. Please summary the ways how people celebrate festivals.
5. Please do independent reading first, and tell each other the religious background for the following festivals: Good Friday, Christmas and Easter.

Supplementary Reading

1. Shakespeare Globe Theatre

Officially opened to the public in 1997, Shakespeare Globe Theatre is a unique international resource dedicated to the performing of Shakespeare's work and the exploration of performance and arts. It locates on the south bank of the River Thames, London, and welcomes guests and visitors from all over the world year round.

The current prosperous development of the Shakespeare Globe owns to the pioneering American actor and director Sam Wanamaker, who visited London for the first time in 1949. He was disappointed at the sight of the original Globe and wished to a better memorial to Shakespeare. Sam Wanamaker then dedicated to establish the Shakespeare Globe Trust and started building of the current Globe in 1993. Sam did not see the completion himself. He passed away on 18 December 1993. Today Shakespeare's Globe Trust engages in promoting the international understanding of Shakespeare's work, especially the promotion of dramatic poet in the English language.

2. Gregorian Calendar

This is the internationally accepted calendar and it was first put forward by the Calabrain doctor Aloysius Lilius. It was then decreed by Pope Gregory XIII on 24th February, 1582, and then the name was derived from it. The Gregorian calendar is a reformation of the Julian calendar, using Anno Domini system counts years from the traditional Incarnation of Jesus. This is the same year-numbering system which is used internationally today by most of countries.

Further Reading

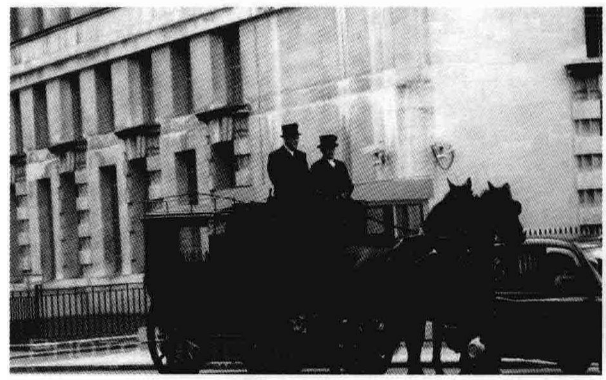
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2. Phillip Steele, Steve Parker, Adam Hibbert and Fiona MacDonald. *100 Facts on British History*. Miles Kelly Publishing Ltd., 2008.
3. *The Ladybird Book of British History*, Ladybird. Ladybird Book Ltd., 2007.

Useful Websites

1. www. Eif.co.uk
2. www.thenottinghillcarnival.com
3. www.artsfestivals.co.uk

Chapter 14

British Social Customs



导 读

Introduction

英国人的考究，保守的风格广为人知。他们非常在乎出席宴会的着装和礼仪，去朋友家聚会要准时，见面一定要寒暄。这些都是构成英国人社会风俗不可缺少的重要环节。本章将英国社会风俗分为三个主要话题讨论：1)社会交际；2)穿衣礼俗；3)用餐礼俗。每个小话题都会以风俗由来为主要讨论内容。本章内容注重信息选取的时效性，从历史和现代两个角度对比看英国社会风俗内容和变化的同时，也特别选取大量与大学校园生活有关的信息。

Ⅰ. Introduction

Most British people, when asked about British social customs, would come up with the following topics: punctuality, dress code and dining. We will specially look at aspects about social customs in Britain in this chapter. By viewing each feature, hope you will have a clearer understanding about social lives in Britain.

Punctuality

We put, especially, punctuality here as the first feature to discuss due to the importance British people give to it in their lives. British people value time very much and they consider punctuality—keeping to the schedule — as the very good quality of a person. This is not only a case for people who work in offices but of the same importance for family meetings and friends gathering. That's why when study at university, you will probably be very familiar with the scene that professors are hurrying from one lecture to another holding cookies and one cup of coffee in hands, which of course would not satisfy the stomach as lunch! In most UK universities, morning lecture starts around 9.15am and ends around 11.15-30am. The afternoon session starts around 1.15pm; around 3.30 pm lectures and students will have refreshment, and then another lecture around 4.15pm.

Punctuality is valued highly. Being late at the lecture would in most cases automatically considered at being absence (because students are supposed to sign their names on the roster at the very beginning).

What makes punctuality more important concerns the handing-in of the assignments. All the term papers would be handed in before deadline given by teachers. Students would have a receipt when they hand in their assignments marking clearly on it the actual time when the assignment is handed in. No late handing-in would be accepted, which will directly lead to the failure of the fulfillment of the course.

As has been mentioned previously, punctuality is highly valued not only in offices, universities but also at social gatherings, such as parties, family reunion. However, when talking about punctuality, it does mean to arrive quite early than the scheduled time. when one is invited to have a dinner at friend's home, it's not polite either to arrive too early because the hostess may be busy preparing and she may not have time to welcome you before arranged dinner time. If the appointment is for the tea sessions, cocktail parties or receptions for conferences, you need to arrive at any time during the hours specified. You need to arrive minutes earlier for the public meetings, concerts, movies, sporting events, classes and weddings. This is especially important because if you are late, your arrival and settlement in your seats would inevitably interfere the others' enjoyment or the procedure of the event.

Greeting

It has been frequently said that British people tend to choose weather as their greeting topics. The fundamental reason to touch on weather when they meet each other is because Britain locates on the island which is very close to the European continent. Due to the frequently changing climate, the weather may change frequently and gets rain occasionally. That's why when British people go out they would take an umbrella or wear wind and rain-proof clothes.

Now when British people meet each other, they would use simply "hello" or "hi" to greet. However, the words may vary among regions. For example, in Staffordshire, which is in the west midlands of England, people would use "duck" to greet each other. The fact is that "duck" is derived from the Anglo-Saxon word "ducis", meaning respect, which is very similar to the Middle English "duc" or "duk". Therefore, today, in midland of England, you will hear people address each other with "duck" when they greet.

We might be very familiar with the scene in which westerners when meet each other would kiss and hug. However, in Britain, it is only when you meet your friend, whom you haven't seen for a long time, you would kiss the cheek, or you can give an air kiss. In Britain, one kiss would be enough generally because most British people are more reserved. Kissing or hugging people at the first time when introduced to them is not welcomed in most cases.

Nowadays, people still use what we learned formally in the textbooks, such as 'how do you do?' and 'how are you?' But these formal greetings also request formal reply. And you should remember that when first introduced to others, you need to shake hands formally, and use formal greeting. In daily life, people use 'cheers' as 'thank you' sometimes as 'good bye'.

Handshaking is quite common when people greet each other and is a custom when someone is firstly introduced. It's also polite to shake hands with everyone to whom one is introduced to. Do remember taking off the gloves when shaking hands with others. It is very impolite to shake hands with gloves. Of course, this does not apply to specially designed women dress gloves.

Visiting people in their houses

When visiting people in their houses in Britain, there are several points should be considered. Firstly, do arrive at the exact time according to the invitation. If you are invited to someone's house for dinner at half past six, the family would expect you to be there sharp. If the invitations say '7.30 for 8', you should arrive no later than 7.50.

If you receive an invitation says 'RSVP', which actually means that you should reply to the invitation senders and tell them whether you plan to come or not. RSVP is the abbreviation for a French phrase, meaning 'please reply'. In most cases, British people tend to say 'Drop in any time when you are free' or other similar words when they meet each other. But they don't really plan to welcome the visitors at any time. So before you plan to visit someone, it's highly recommended that you make a phone call first.

Normally, it is a custom to bring a gift to the host family if you are invited to have a dinner with them because it shows your appreciation to their hospitality. Any items like flowers, sweets, or other small gifts are appropriate. You can also send them a thank-you note after visit to express your appreciation.

Dressing

British people care about the match of dressing and occasions very much. You can't dress a T-shirt to a cocktail party, or white socks with dark shoes. The lack of knowledge of proper dressing would make one feel embarrassed and awkward when facing lots of properly and formally dressed people. If you receive an invitation to the conference without any indication of dress requirements, telephone the host and ask!



Cocktail dress



Long dress

Normally men are supposed to wear dark suit if to attend a semi-formal business conference or workshop, women could wear a cocktail dress. If the conference is formal, tuxedo would be preferred, and women better wear long dress, which is more formal than the cocktail dress. Considering the different styles of design of ties, match it carefully with the suits because too much color and design pattern does make it less formal.

Dining Out

We will spend a lot of time in this section discussing eating etiquette due to the high consideration and importance the British people give to table manners. British people eat mostly with cutlery.

Now let's firstly consider the different functions of knife and fork. There are several steps to follow:

1. To start with, the fork is on the left side of the plate and the knife is on the right side.

To cut into items on your plate, pick up and hold your knife in your right hand. The index finger is



mostly straight and rests near the base of the top, blunt side of the blade. The other four fingers wrap around the handle.

2. Hold your fork in your left hand. The tines (prongs) face away (downward) from you. The index finger is straight, and rests on the back-side near the head of the fork, (but not so close you are in danger of touching the food.) The other four fingers wrap around the handle.

3. Bend the wrists, so that your index fingers are pointing down towards your plate. This makes the tip of the





knife and fork also point towards the plate somewhat.

4. Hold the food with the fork, by applying pressure through the index finger. Cut with the knife, in the same way. Essential: Place knife down on plate. If you are right-handed, move the fork into the right hand to place food into mouth.

5. Bring smallish bits of food to your mouth with the fork. Repeat. (If you must angle the item, or lips/ teeth, to get it into your mouth it is too large.)

6. Rice and small items are picked up by the fork in a slight scooping manner, rather than stabbing at. (Always exceptions, something that rolls is difficult to stay on the fork.)

7. There is no need to use the knife to divert items to the fork, especially the back side of the fork. Don't pile items on the back side of the fork as if it were some type of art work. Turn the fork over.

8. Try laying the utensils down both together at an angle when finished, at a 11 o'clock to 4 o'clock positioning. This is much more desired than upside down, laying off the plate, or on the sides, like a bridge.

9. The main point here is to not be in a hurry. Slow down. The utensils are laid down often, and not held in clenched fists. The fork is never let go.

10. If you're eating a dessert, your fork (if you have one) should be held in the left hand and the spoon in the right.

11. When eating soup, you should hold your spoon in your right hand and tip the bowl away from you, scooping the soup in movements away from yourself. The soup spoon should never be put into the mouth, and soup should be sipped from the side of the spoon, not the end.

12. It is not acceptable to use your fingers to push food onto your fork, nor to handle most food items. Some foods such as fruit, bread, sandwiches or burgers may be eaten using fingers, and fingers are mandatory for eating some items, such as asparagus spears, which are traditionally served with sauce

on the side for dipping.

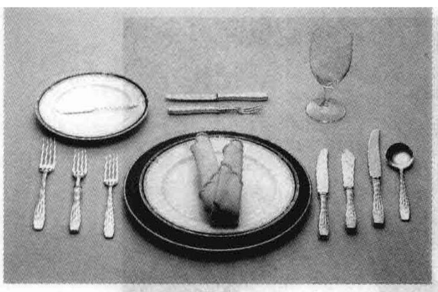
13. If there are a number of knives or forks, start from the outside set working your way in as each course is served.

14. Drinks should always on the right of the plate with the bread plate to the left.

15. When eating bread rolls, break off a piece before buttering. Use your knife only to butter the bread, not to cut it.

16. Do not start eating before the host does or instructs guests to do so. At meals with a very large number of people, it is acceptable to start eating once others have been served.

17. When finished, place the knife and fork together at six o'clock with your fork on the left (tines facing up) and knife on the right, with the knife blade facing in. This signals that one has finished.





18. The napkin should never be screwed up. Nor should it be folded neatly as that would suggest that your host might plan to use it again without washing it-just leave it neatly but loosely on the table.

19. Never blow your nose on your napkin. Place it on your lap and use it to dab your mouth if you make a mess.

20. It is considered rude to answer the telephone at the table. If you need to take an urgent call, excuse yourself and go outside.

21. Always ask for permission from the host and excuse yourself if you need to leave the table. You should place your napkin on your seat until you return. It is considered common courtesy for all gentlemen at the table to stand when a lady arrives or leaves the table.

22. If you must leave the table or are resting, your fork should be at eight o'clock and your knife at four o'clock (with the blade inwards). Once an item of cutlery has been used, it should not touch the table again.

23. Food should be brought to your mouth on the back of the fork.

24. Dishes should be served from the left, and taken away from the right. Unless the food is placed on your plate at the table, then it should arrive from the left.

25. Drinks should be served from the right.

26. Never lean across somebody else's plate. If you need something to be passed, ask the person closest to it. If you have to pass something, only pass it if you are closest to it and pass it directly to them if you can.

27. Salt and pepper shakers should be passed together.

28. Do not take food from a neighbour's plate and don't ask to do so.

29. You must not put your elbows on the table.

30. If pouring a drink for yourself, offer to pour a drink for your neighbors before serving yourself.

31. If extra food is on the table, ask others if they would like it before taking it yourself.

32. When chewing food, close your mouth and only talk after you have swallowed it.

33. Swallow all food before eating more or drinking.

34. Do not slurp your food or eat loudly.

35. Never pick food out of your teeth with your fingernails.

36. Try to eat all the food you are served.

37. Wine glasses should be held by the stem in the case of white wines, and by cupping the bowl in the case of red wines

38. If port is served after the meal, then the decanter should be passed to the person on your left and never passed to the right.

39. Never transfer food to your mouth with your knife.

And we should always remember not to stick elbows out, learn to keep them in against the sides of the body. Otherwise you might knock your neighbour!

Americans use knife and forks in a different manner: Knife in right hand, fork in left hand holding food. After a few bite-sized pieces of food are cut, place knife on edge of plate with blades facing in. Eat food by switching fork to right hand (unless you are left handed).

However, the Continental/European Style is: Knife in right hand, fork in left hand. Eat food with fork still in left hand. The difference is that you don't switch hands-you eat with your fork in your left hand, with the prongs curving downward.

British Food

Normally the formal dining dishes would include starter or appetizer which usually is soup or light dish (smoked salmon), main course which might be steak or other kinds of heavy course, and desserts.





The most famous traditional British dish is Fish and Chips. That is fried fish and homemade potato chips and served with beans or smashed beans. Apart from fish and chips, the Sunday roast, and bangers and mash are also very popular British dishes.

British cuisine has regional features, including English, Scottish and Welsh cuisine, and each has developed their own regional or local dishes. Due to its highly developed agriculture, fertile land and breeding industry, Britain has developed meat stewing techniques and the historical Norman Conquest brought in new leaves and also continental influence into Great Britain in the middle ages. Then during the Protestant Reformation period in the 16th and 17th centuries, food remained plain. In the 18th and 19th centuries, the colonial British food began to be influenced by India's food tastes, which were strong spices and herbs. At the same time, British beef was very popular among the world.

Along with the fast development in urbanization and early industrialization, modern customers request more on food quality and security. The concern over quality and nutritional value of food results





in the organic farming and the promotion of the animal welfare in the world.

Things to be taken care of when dinning out

1. Making reservation. In Britain, people would make reservations when they dine out if it is a formal gathering. They don't want to bump into the place and find out that all the tables are served. If the meal is on special occasions, say, Christmas, mother's birthday, British people would make the reservation, set the dishes and reserve for a good wine. If they walk in, they would wait at the lounge for the waiter or waitress to guide them to the table. Normally the waiter would ask: "A table for ? " which means how many people would be served, British people will also line up if they have the fast food, for example, the KFC, or the typical fast food restaurant for fish and chips.

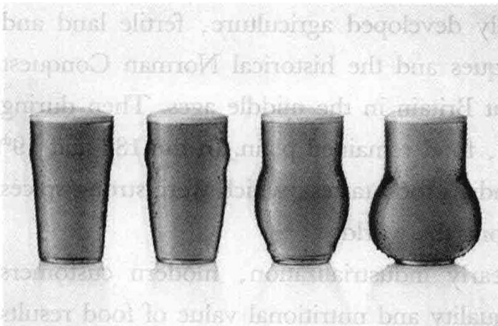
2. Be considerate about friends' peculiarity. There are quite a number of British people who are vegetarians. And most of restaurants in Britain have vegetarian dishes. Therefore, when people dine out, they would consult whether their friends would like to have vegetarian food. And there are some vegetarians can't stand the smoke from barbecue. They call that "secondhand barbecue smoke".

3. When having the formal meal, most British people do care about how to eat the bread, which comes first in the course of meal. Normally, they agree that the bread should be eaten piece by piece, which means, the whole bread should be torn off piece by piece and then get buttered. Even though in daily practice, people don't really care about how the others are eating the bread. But if it comes to some occasion, they do mind the manners.

4. When dining out, British people do mind being looked at. That is if someone finds people sitting next to his table are having a good-looking dish, and he wants to have it too. It is OK to look at the other's dish but long staring will make them uncomfortable.

British Drinking Culture

An article on BBC (8 April, 2002) titled with "What's wrong with our drinking culture? " discussed the crucial issue about the drinking culture in Britain.



It is said that up to a quarter of 13-14-year-olds say that they drink at least five alcoholic drinks in a single session, and 27% of those aged 15 and 16 reported three or more binges in the past month, according to a survey for the Joseph Rowntree Foundation. The findings also confirm the earlier reports which suggest that British teens are more likely to get drunk-and more often- than many of their European continent contemporaries. Researchers say that this could be

down to the different culture surrounding alcohol.

Tea Drinking

Tea is the most popular drink in Britain - far more popular than coffee. The Dutch brought the first tea to Europe in about 1610, but it was not until 1658 that the first advertisement for tea appeared in a London newspaper. By 1750, tea had become the principal drink of all the social classes in Britain, although at that time a pound of the cheapest tea cost about one-third of a skilled worker's weekly wage!

Gradually, tea drinking developed into a fashionable social ritual. Tea gardens, where couples could stroll in the afternoon and enjoy a cup of tea with bread, butter and cakes. Tea parties are also popular at home, and soon the ritual of 'afternoon tea' was firmly established.

Tea in Britain is traditionally brewed in a china teapot, adding one spoonful of tea per person and one for the pot. Great importance is attached to the use of freshly boiled water, which is poured onto the leaves. The tea is left to brew for a few minutes. Although hundreds of different teas are available, the strong English Breakfast blend is one of the favorites, with added milk, and a little sugar for those with a sweet tooth.

In Britain, a cream tea, Devonshire tea or Cornish cream tea is the kind of tea taken with a combination of scones, clotted cream or sometimes whipped cream, and the scones have to be spread with jam. Cream teas are offered for sale in tea rooms throughout Great Britain (especially the South West of England) and rest of the Commonwealth, or wherever someone wants to give an impression of British influence. In the United States it is promoted as a typically British afternoon snack.





Glossary

refreshment 在公共活动场所供应或销售的饮料，小食品
rain-proof 防雨的
air kiss 嘟嘴示吻
cheers 干杯
workshop 车间，工场，作坊
cocktail dressing 晚礼服
etiquette 礼仪
RSVP 请赐复(正式请柬用语)
cuisine 烹饪，风味
binge 狂热行动，大吃大喝
herbs 香草
contemporary 同一时代的

Cultural Notes

Fish and chips is a popular take-away food that originated in the United Kingdom in 1858 or 1863. It

consists of deep-fried fish (traditionally cod, haddock or flounder) in batter or breadcrumbs with deep-fried chipped (slab-cut) potatoes. Popular tradition associates the dish with the United Kingdom and Ireland; and fish and chips remains very popular in the UK and in areas colonised by British people in the 19th century, such as Australia, New Zealand and Canada. It has also been popular in the Faroe Islands since the time it was introduced during the British occupation of the Faroe Islands in World War II.

In the United Kingdom, fish and chips became a cheap food popular among the working classes with the rapid development of trawl fishing in the North Sea in the second half of the nineteenth century. In 1860, the first fish and chip shop was opened in London by Jewish proprietor Joseph Malin who married together "fish fried in the Jewish fashion" with chips.

The modern fish-and-chip shop ("chippy" or "chipper" in modern British slang) originated in the United Kingdom, although outlets selling fried food occurred commonly throughout Europe. According to one story, fried-potato shops spreading south from Scotland merged with fried-fish shops spreading from southern England. Early fish-and-chip shops had only very basic facilities. Usually these consisted principally of a large cauldron of cooking-fat, heated by a coal fire. Insanitary by modern [update] standards, such establishments also emitted a smell associated with frying, which led to the authorities classifying fish-and-chip supply as an "offensive trade", a stigma retained until the interwar period. The industry overcame this reputation because during World War II fish and chips remained one of the few foods in the United Kingdom not subject to rationing.

In the United Kingdom and Ireland, the Fish Labelling Regulations 2003 enact directive 2065/2001/EC and generally means that "fish" must be sold with the particular species named; so "cod and chips" not "fish and chips". The Food Standards Agency guidance excludes caterers from this; but several local Trading Standards authorities and others do say it cannot be sold merely as "fish and chips".

Questions for Discussion

1. Please pair in groups and tell each other the British table manner.
2. What do we need to attend to when visiting a friend's home in the UK?
3. Tell the differences between the Chinese and British table manners.
4. What do you know about the British afternoon tea? Why it is quite important for British people?
5. Can you introduce some British cuisine to each other?

Supplementary Reading

Life in Britain

Talking about Great Britain, you may have some of the famous figures like the Queen, the Beatles, or Shakespeare in your mind; you might be enjoying the Estuary English that offers a fascinating feeling that could make everything sound like a "gentleman"; or you are wondering what a man would be like in a skirt thing called kilt; or even have ever tried on hippies' and punks' outfit once in a while. As a student

who studies in Great Britain for the first time, the living tempo of this country did seem a lot interesting to me.

Their day starts just with a typical English breakfast tea. It might be with traditional sausages and eggs at home or a bacon roll from McDonald's, but different from Americans or other English speaking countries, they sit through breakfast also with a copy of newspaper, there is always no rush to work. While competitive Chinese and Japanese may wonder "Why?" They probably already have "Why not?" as an answer to it. Work is part of their life, but they also believe they work to live not live to work. You would have relatively relaxed atmosphere living there compare to life in Asian countries.

Nevertheless, they are quite on time to work. Actually they are routine. It even gives me an impression that you have everything done with appointments, e-mails, or even letters. New students or foreign students like me may spend their first few weeks on making all kinds of appointments such as NHS registration, setting up your new network, opening a new bank account. Even when you want to solve a minor problem about your essay and consult your supervisor within five minutes, you make appointments first! There is no way of breaking other people's living tempo or schedules to fit in yours. They place high value on their personal life and seldom can you see them scarifying their personal lives to work. So you may find out disappointedly that all work place including shopping malls and small stores will close at 5 pm. However, don't think they are with loads of deadlines to meet at work. Usually they start work around 9:30, and then there will be a "coffee break" before lunch time around 1 o'clock. Two and half hours after lunch, there come their afternoon tea time. And 5 o'clock sharp, they pack up for home.

What would they do after work since almost all places are closed after 5 pm? All the places but one would still be open the bar and the restaurant. Interestingly, their life starts to speed up a bit during this time of the day. During supper, a glass of red wine is always a good choice with steak, and a beer might be ideal to the fish and chips. But you will notice, even when they finished their dinner, the British would not let go with their drinks such easy. Bar is where they will go. Mates and strangers will all gather there. Old people usually enjoy a sip of whisky while young ladies might fancy a colorful cocktail; lads may compete on shoots or beers while once in a while they numb themselves with an Irish coffee. Dancing sometimes is with their night life, fast tempo or slow, it all comes back to normal when they get drunk. So does its living tempo.

It is Britain. When you are thinking working on an extra shift or rushing your parcel delivered, the British will just take their own tempo. My British mate once told me "when you rush, you just don't see it and you will miss a lot." I guess it is what my friend does with her life. And it is also what the British do with their life and what they believe.

Dining in UK

I am sure that you will not be surprised when hearing one complaining about the poor UK food. There is lots of original UK food available for your choice when you want a taste of this "unwelcome" cooking style such as baked beans, sausage rolls, bacons rolls, buns, stewed sprouts, turkey meals and of course the most famous fish and chips. Actually they taste quiet good if you are in a mood of experimenting exotic flavors. By any means, your taste buds will have a very different experience from eating Chinese food all year round.

But I admit, due to the limit of choices and the plainness of taste, confining yourself to UK food will make your life boring and fading, which is why, I guess, there are a huge amount of foreign restaurants everywhere in UK.

French restaurants are great places to enjoy the elegance of food and no one will judge you no matter you are wearing a jeans or an evening dress. In an Italian restaurant, if you are a great fun of cheese like me, you can wait for ages before telling the waitress to stop grinding Parmesan onto your spaghetti. And seafood and paella are most welcome in Spanish restaurants.

Asian food is very much popular in UK as well. When walking on the streets in cities, you will be amazed at the number of Indian and Thai restaurants, in which you can find green curry, yellow curry, and red curry dishes at your choice. One of my British friends firmly believes the best Indian food is made in UK, and he does has reasons, but of course, I see lots of arguing between him and our Indian friends. Japanese food is also commonly seen in UK. Sushi and sashimi are the must tries in Japanese restaurants, with the special Japanese tea, you can experience every Yamato flavor.

There is no doubt that every British city has more than one Chinese restaurant, and Chinese people are very fond of opening a buffet in the city center. If you emphasize on choices, please do go to the Leicester Square Chinatown in London. And if you are not starving and not the quick-to-make-decision type person, I am sure it will take you a while to finally go into a restaurant while regretting missing any of the others.

Along the streets, kebab shops, hotdog stalls, sandwich bars and bakeries are everywhere; and almost forget to mention, KFC, Mc Donald's, Burger King and Subway can also be your choice for a quick grab.

Dining in restaurants in UK, it is advised to observe their restaurant custom.

Start from the very beginning. Usually you need to stand just inside the door and wait to be seated, but don't worry, it won't be more than 30 seconds before someone is smiling and cheerfully ask "a table for 2? (The number of course depends on how many people are together with you)" and of course you can add "any window table available? "

After seated, a "boring" menu (By boring, I mean there is not a single picture at all! But it is extremely detailed in describing everything about the dish, including ingredients, cooking methods, and sometimes even food containers) will be presented to you and you can take you time reading every single word on it if you like. No rush. When decisions are made, waiters and waitress are at your call at any time. And you can always ask for recommendations if there are too many varieties on the menu.

During the meal, your waiter or waitress may come and check if you are entirely satisfied with you food or to see if you have any other need. I guess most of you would say "no, thank you" when you are giving a negative answer, but please be aware to say "yes, please" if you are trying to respond positively! A single "yes" would be considered rude and impolite, and if your waiter or waitress is not in a great mood, he or she has every reason to neglect your minor requests and make you dining experience "just so so".

Finishing your meal, it is very advisable to say comment a little bit about the food to the waiter or waitress. Complimentary words are surly important, but friendly pointing out of the problem is also very much welcome. I once met a couple on their honeymoon trip, they were so glad with the dining experience and insist to hug the chef.

So, if you are satisfied with the service, please tip!

There are only US and UK have this tipping custom. The income of waiters and waitresses depends highly on tips, which is a very good way to encourage them working harder and make your dining experience one of the most comfortable that they can offer. Usually a waiter or waitress will be serving your table from the very beginning to the end, so your tips (cash tips preferable) would be a great respect to their service. Don't worry about your wallet, just tip about 10% of you bill or any amount you feel comfortable. Anyway, waiters and waitress in UK are not always expecting great tippers like their US colleagues. You can tip and say "thank you" to your waiter in person; or when paying the bill, you could give some big notes and say "these are all yours!"; or you can just leave some changes on the table and walk straight away.

How about now? Don't be so scared about dining in UK, just get your wallet ready and go!

A look at British social customs

Every town and every city in the world has its customs, every country has its customs and every other country thinks the others are weird. Each country has a tradition and a history that they often reflect in their customs, they reenact long standing traditions in order to keep them used. They are things that have happened for many years or have developed over time, things that in some cases people might do automatically with out knowing where the history lies.

The pub

This is the setting of many different British traditions and is in fact one on its own merit. It is the place to go to meet people for the first time, the place to watch sport and the place to celebrate something. Also it's a place to drown sorrows, to commiserate and to meet after a loved ones funeral. A place for all seasons the pub is where you go to drink alcohol for all the above reasons and some others besides. With the playgrounds for kids, meals for all and mix of entertainments the pub is the focal point for many lives.

Loving the loser

The British have a strange fascination with the under dog, the failure and the also ran in society. They love the sportsmen who tried but failed, the singer that came second in the talent contest and the person that reached some dizzy heights for a brief time before plummeting into obscurity. There are numerous celebrity based shows on TV that have the word celebrity in the title but have people in the show that few would be able to recognize let alone know how they earned a celebrity tag. In fact what these shows tend to do is take in ex-celebrities, then they try their hardest to become famous again, the winners of these shows tend to find a degree of fresh fame after the shows end.

Loving the famous

For reasons that many people find amazing there is an enormous market for those that can sell stories about the rich and famous. Many people want to know who did what to who and where, who got married, who got divorced and who got a new chin. The market is full of magazines, TV programmes and other media loaded with shots of the rich and famous sunbathing, with pictures of their houses and details of their new car. Perhaps its people aspiring to reach celebrity level or a form of jealousy. One serious problem from this is the glut of rich celebrities who have no discernible talent or ability. Thus giving others the idea that no talent is needed to make a living. People like Jordan and the recently deceased Jade Goody have made fortunes with little talent for anything; in fact Jade was a failure in an

old big brother series, was derided and mocked for her stupidity but made a fortune from it none the less.

SMALL TALK

When you first meet someone it can be difficult to know how to start a conversation, especially if your first language is not English.

Which topics are safe for small talk?

— Introductions, eg "Hello. May I introduce myself? My name is Mark."

— Travel, eg "Did you manage to find here OK? " or "Did you have a good journey? "

— Family, eg "How is your family? " (but only if you already know about the person's family)

— Hospitality, eg "Can I get you something to eat or drink? "

— The weather, eg "It's a lovely day today, isn't it? "

— Holidays, eg "Are you going anywhere this weekend? " or "Are you going anywhere on holiday this year? "

— Nature, eg "The garden looks lovely, doesn't it? "

— Pets, eg "What a lovely dog. What is his name? " (British people love dogs or cats)

— General news, eg "What do you think about the recent floods? " (but safer to avoid gossip and politics)

— Films, eg "Have you seen the film Bridget Jones's Diary? "

— Television, eg "Did you see The X Factor last night? "

— Music, eg "What sort of music do you like? "

— Books, eg "Have you read any good books recently? " (but only if you know the person likes reading)

— Sport, eg "Have you been watching Wimbledon? " (note that many British people, especially men, enjoy talking about football)

— Hobbies, eg "What do you enjoy doing in your spare time? "

— Business, eg "How's your business going? " (but only ask if you know the person has a business)

— Studies, eg "What are you studying? " (but only ask if you know the person is a student)

— Work, eg "What sort of work do you do? "

— Food, eg "I had a lovely Chinese meal last night — do you like Chinese food? "

— General matters about the person you are talking to, eg "Have you lived in this area long? "

— General matters on subjects that you know that interests the person you are talking to, eg cars, film stars etc.

Which topics are best avoided for small talk?

You may need to be careful when you talk about some topics, especially with people that you've only just met, people who are older than you, people who appear to have strong religious or political views, or people who may have some personal problems or sensitivities. For example, be cautious if you discuss these subjects:

— Age, eg "How old are you? "

— Appearance or weight, eg "You seem to have put on some weight"

— Personal gossip about somebody you know

— Jokes that might offend (especially sexist or racist jokes)

— Money, eg "How much do you earn? "

— Sex (some people have strong religious views about this, or are embarrassed by the subject)

— Previous or current relationships, eg "Do you have a girlfriend? "

— Politics, eg "Who did you vote for at the last election? "
— Religion, eg "Do you believe in God? "
— Criticisms or complaints, eg "Why is British food so bad? "

TIPPING

When should I leave a tip?

There are a number of situations in which it is common to leave a tip (sometimes called a gratuity), although you should not feel that you have to do this if you cannot afford to do so or if you were not happy with the service provided.

—Restaurant or café

Usually people only pay a tip in a restaurant or café when there is a waiter service (not for takeaway meals or self-service meals). Normally people add about 10% to the bill and make the amount a whole number of pounds. Check the menu and the bill to see if a service charge is already included in the price. For example, it may say: "A discretionary 10% service charge has been included" or "service is included", or you may just see that 10% has been added at the bottom of the bill (you can refuse to pay this part if you were unhappy with the service). If the service charge is not included the bill may say "Service charge not included" or "Gratuities are at the customer's discretion".

—Hairdresser's

It is common for people to leave a small tip (maybe one or two pounds) as a tip.

—Taxi

It is common to add 10% to the taxi fare.

—Hotel

You may want to give a small tip (perhaps 1 or 2 pounds) when a member of hotel staff gives you a special service. For example, a tip may be appropriate if a porter carries your baggage to your room when you arrive, if the concierge helps you (for example by helping you to buy tickets, book a restaurant or plan your shopping or sightseeing, or by keeping your bags safe before check-in or after check-out) or if a doorman finds a taxi for you. It is more polite if you do not show the money when you are giving it - put it in your hand, say thank you, shake the person's hand and press the money into the person's hand.

Further Reading

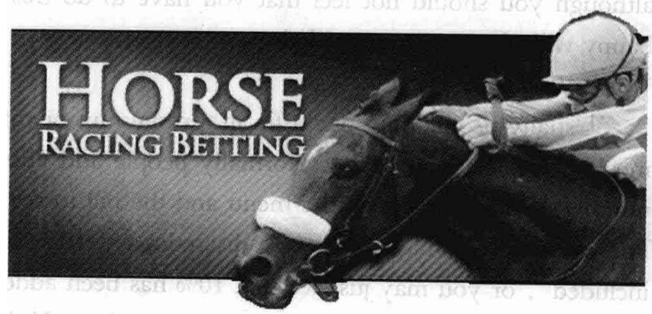
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Useful Websites

www.woodlands-junior.kent.sch.uk

Chapter 15

Leisure and Tourism



导 读
Introduction

英国是个美丽的岛国，英国人非常钟爱旅游和各项娱乐活动。除了每年的宗教和法定假日里的娱乐活动，英国人还有他们热爱的体育运动，如温布尔登网球公开赛以及英格兰足球超级联赛等。去旅游胜地游玩是英国人生活中必不可少的一个部分。英国人每年都会利用假日去国外旅游。本章主要介绍英国人平时生活里的娱乐方式和英国国内的旅游胜地。

Ⅰ. Introduction

British people enjoy various kinds of entertainment activities. They love to spend weekends together with the family, visiting relatives and friends, dining out at a fancy restaurant, watching a drama or doing shopping. Most British people enjoy traveling during their longer holidays. They love to visit warmer places due to lacking of sunshine in their own country. Therefore, the beaches of Barcelona and France are the most visited places of British people.

In this chapter, we will view diversified leisure activities enjoyed by most of British people and visit ourselves the beautiful British tourist attractions.

Ⅱ. Leisure Activities

Shopping

For British people, shopping could be the most popular activities on weekends. Various sales promotions, vouchers given out by the markets and advertisements on TV, Internet, and Cell phones are very effective methods to persuade British people to go out on weekends to spend their money at stores. However, British people do enjoy very much this kind of leisure activity. And most of them would consider shopping as their No.1 leisure activity!

In many towns there is a main shopping street, and most of them are named as the High Street. A

few small shops are run by local people. Most are operated by national 'chains' of stores. And this makes most of shopping streets look very similar. Most of the towns also have street markets where people go for fresh food and cheap goods. There are also small corner shops provide groceries to local customers.

Families usually go shopping on Saturdays because Sundays are a very special day for them. It is the day for worship and rest. In the past most of the shops were closed and people would go to churches on Sundays. Apart from going to churches, people would do odd jobs, like gardening etc., at home. However, Sundays today are like every other day in a week. And some families may go to church and do shopping as well on Sundays even though it is not very convenient to arrange two activities in one day because shops open relatively a shorter time on Sundays comparing to other week days.

TV and Radio and Popular Prgrammes

Watching TV or listening to the radio is the most popular and common way for British people enjoy themselves. According to the BBC reports, the large majority is glued to the TV; not only teens and adults, the 11-16 year olds watch TV around 2.9 hours a day, which is less then the average individual, spending 3.75 hours a day. What's more, with the new technology utilized by BBC, which enables families to receive radio programme by using their TV sets, now more and more people would listen to the radio because it does not confine you in front of the BOX!

According to Nick Higham, a BBC media correspondent, he lately tried something that he normally does not do — tuning his Sky box on television to the radio. However, he was very delighted to find this really fascinating to enjoy the new technology: a device capable of delivering 384 channels of audio-plus-video! Thanks to the advanced technology that most British people now can easily subscribe to the TV and radio programmes via internet, mobile phone etc. However, the technology alone cannot ensure such a big number of audiences. The programme designers also contribute a lot to color up the leisure life of British people. For example, recent years the programme, "Britain's Got Talent" is popular worldwide.



Britain's Got Talent is produced by ITV. It is a programme showing the competition between singers, dancers, comedians, variety acts and other performers. The winner of each series can receive 100,000 pounds and would get the opportunity to perform for the Royal Family at the Royal Variety Performance. The show was created by Simon Cowell, who participated in American Idol as the judge and he also created a Got Talent series across the world. The first series began in June 2007 and the winner was the opera singer Paul Potts. The 2008 series of Britain's Got Talent visited Scotland in the auditions and live showed 40 semi-finals. The series of 2008 was much longer than the 2007 series, lasing for seven weeks. The winner was street dancer George Sampson. The 2009 third series commenced on 11 April, 2009. The audition was much longer through January to February in five cities: Manchester, Glasgow, Birmingham, London and Cardiff. After the first round, semi-finals staged on from 24th May till 30th May. The most unforgettable performance was by Susan Boyle, a Scottish woman. The song "I Dreamed a Dream" she sang on the stage astonished all the judges with her amazingly beautiful voices. And her performance attracted more than 11.2 million viewers, setting a new record for the programme.

As it has been announced at the end of 2009 series last year, the show will begin its fourth series in April 2010. The audition will be held in Glasgow, Manchester, Cardiff, Newcastle, Birmingham and the final stop will be at London. The final series will be aired in April 2010. Most of British people are eager for the show of the programme, hoping it will break the rating record.

Big Brother is a reality show on TV about a group of people living together in a large house. It was first shown in Netherlands. The participants would be isolated from the outside world and would be videoed during the show time. Each series lasts for about three months and the participants are no more than 15. The winner has to survive the periodic evictions from the house. Big Brother started a sensation in UK at the first show in 2001 on Channel 4. In the programme, the designer created the format that every week the housemates would vote to evict one of the participants from the house, therefore depriving him/her of the opportunity to win the prize. Sometimes, there would be the double eviction.

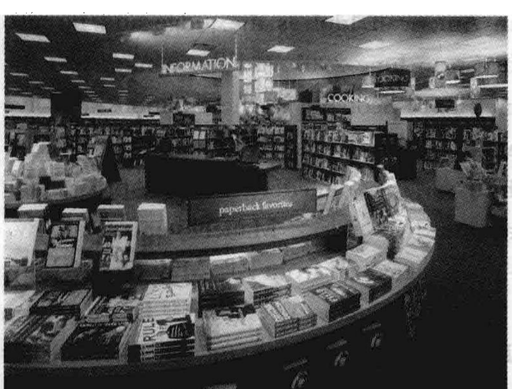
The success of this programme has been viewed from sociological perspective that this programme offers the opportunity for people to react when forced into close and intimate confinement with others who stay very close to their comfort zone. The viewer would be very excited because he/she would have the opportunity to watch how a person reacts on different situations. It was out of this idea that the creator believed this programme would offer entertainment to the public.

Big Brother now has many versions worldwide. UK so far has run the programme for seven series from 2001 to 2010. The seventh series ended in January 2010. It went through ups and downs and remained as a regular programme during 204, 2005 and 2007 in Channel 4. And it was announced by Channel 4 that the programme will not be broadcasted after 2010.

Reading; Cinema and Theatre

If you visit Britain, you will find it a very common scene that most people on the metro or bus or train would be reading newspapers, magazines, or novels. People who are waiting for buses, train or airplane will be reading as well. In Britain, reading is a very common leisure activity. This is not simply a good habit or simply because British people love reading. The media industry works very hard to form this reading habit and they take efforts to color up the media so that people would enjoy and do get relaxed in reading.

Britain's media industry boasts thousands of newspapers and book publishers. Top newspapers enjoy millions of circulation each day offering a very wide variety of information to their readers. Magazine and book sellers take the same efforts to ensure the selling of copies and attract a certain number of loyal readers by consistently providing quality and entertaining books.



Borders bookstore from Border's Gallery

The bookstore promotes the sale by offering attractive discounts on new and old fictions. They also give customers gift cards to lure them come back and buy the books again. Most of book sellers run selling on the internet. They put their best titles on the internet and also deliver the orders for free. All of these promotions do attract people go to visit the store or view the website.

Apart from reading, going to cinema or theatre is also

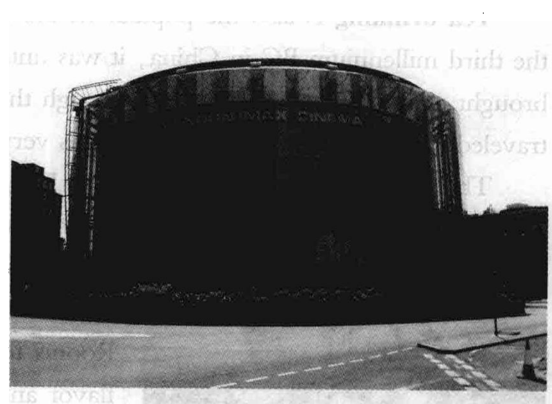
very entertaining. BFI (British Film Institute) is an institute running cinemas, festivals, films and publishing organization. It was founded in 1933 with the purpose to promote understanding and appreciation of Britain's rich film and television culture. Now BFI Southbank, which used to be the National Film Theatre, is the leading repertory cinema in the UK. It shows over 1,000 films each year, featuring different themes like silent comedies and science fictions.



The London Imax Cinema welcomes tens of thousands of viewers each year. In Britain, different cities run different ticket discounts for students, which also encourages more viewers to go to cinema.

Britain is the home for theatres, boasting the most famous play writers like Shakespeare. British people have the tradition going to theatres to enjoy the performance of plays. Local theatres normally provide the stage for college students majoring in drama, offering them the opportunity to test their performance. The local audience is from the community and they do love watching the young performers' innovative performance (they even perform Shakespeare's play with Japanese costumes).

The theatre is not only a place to enjoy artistic performance, to taste what is the newest trend in drama. It is also a place to relax and enjoy the bar, desserts. For example, the Leeds Grand Theatre has several bars and coffee lounges, which provide a wide range of beers, wines and spirits, as well as snacks for the customers. Viewers can pre-order interval drinks at the bar. In London, the Royal National Theatre, which is commonly known as the National Theatre, is one of the two most prominent publicly funded theatres in the UK. It provides a variety of programmes, from Shakespeare's drama to classic and contemporary plays. The annual turnover is around 54 million pounds in 2008-2009, of which 34% was from the tickets sales and 20% from the restaurants, bookshops etc. The rest was from individual investors and government supports.

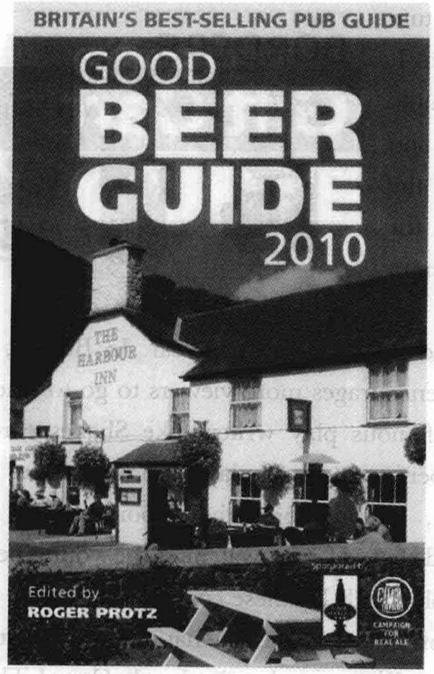


Hanging Out

TV, Radio and Cinema, Theatre might be the popular choices for British people to enjoy during their leisure time. But the most frequent activities and the most popular and common activities for most adult British people would be going to the pubs to have a drink.

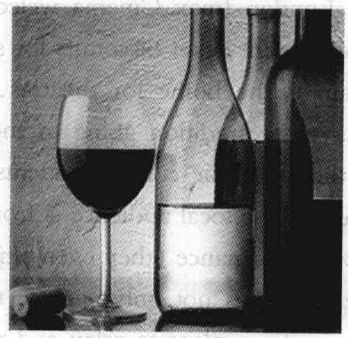
Normally people would go to pub for beers. In Britain the most popular beers are ales and lagers. Ales refer to the beer which ferments in warmer temperatures for the yeast to multiply and ales are usually higher in alcohol. Lagers yeast in a cooler temperatures during fermentation and tend to be lighter in color and alcohol. Beer drinking might form the most alcohol consumption in Britain. Mostly people would not end up with only one pint of beer. They would visit several pubs in one night and end up with several pints.

Wine drinking normally goes with the food because wine can change the way the food tastes and vice versa. Generally there are three types of taste of wine: dry, half dry and sweet. People can simply go





Buying a pint a beer



to the pub or a restaurant lounge and order a homemade wine, which is very common in Britain.

Tea drinking is also the popular leisure activity in Britain. Though tea drinking could date back to the third millennium BC in China, it was until the 17th century that this drink appeared in Britain. It was brought to the European continent through the Portuguese trading route in around 1560 and then slowly traveled to Britain. Today, tea drinking is very popular in Britain with a variety of tea.

There are many types famous tea in UK: cream tea, earl grey, and Chinese tea, Indian tea. Cream tea refers to the combination of scones, whipped cream and jam. The tradition is to spread the freshly whipped cream and jam on the scone and have it with the tea. Normally people would go to the Tea Rooms to have the cream tea. Earl Grey tea is a blend tea with the flavor and aroma from the addition of oil extracted from the rind of the bergamot orange. In Britain 'Earl Grey' refers to black tea, which is one of the most popular teas. Chinese and Indian tea is also favorite choice among British people for their special tastes. Now in Britain there are many tea shops offering people many choices of the loose leaf tea, and tea bags, tea pots and mugs are also very popular products.



The tea house



Loose leaf tea

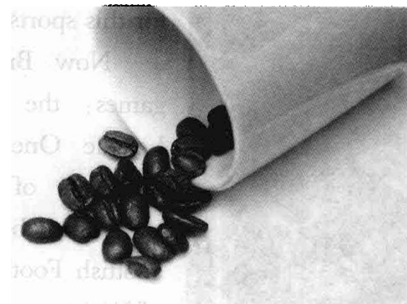
Coffee is a brewed drink from roasted coffee beans. Coffee drinking could be considered as the most traditional beverage in UK. Here are some consumption facts about coffee:

1. Coffee is the most popular drink worldwide with over 400 billion cups consumed each year.

2. In 2009 in Britain around 30 million pounds was spent on coffee.

3. Britain consumes 500g of coffee per person per year.

4. 57% of coffee is drunk at breakfast; 34% between meals and 13% at other meals.





Coffee could suite most people's taste because it has been developed many blended types of coffee. Coffee Latte is the Italian name for coffee with milk. In some parts of Britain, people would call it as 'long milk', indicating that it has quite a lot milk mixed in the coffee. Coffee Mocha is a variant of coffee latte because it mixed the espresso with milk. Cappuccino is a very popular coffee-based beverage. It is a mixture of espresso, hot milk and steamed milk foam. Espresso is a concentrated coffee beverage which is very strong in taste. Most people would have an espresso based coffee beverage at afternoon tea time to fresh them up for the later working hours. Lately with the introduction of the new blend of coffee-based drink by Starbucks—Frappuccino, which is the name of a blended ice beverage and is quite popular among people.

Ⅲ. Indoors and Outdoors Activities

British people enjoy various kinds of indoor and outdoors activities, such as go-karting, bowling, games, ice-skating, and snookers etc. Some people fancy why British people would be keen on so many kinds of indoors activities. It is not difficult to guess out the reason that Britain has seldom enjoyed very long perfect weather. And most indoor activity centers would offer drinking and shops to the customers.

Kart Racing

Kart racing or karting is an open-wheel motor sport. Karts, the vehicles, are quite small and open with four wheels. Usually people would race on scaled-down circuits. It is a kind of sports that could be held indoors as well outdoors.



The creator of karting is generally acknowledged as Art Ingels, a veteran and race car builder. He built the first kart in Southern California in 1956. Afterwards, karting spreads out quickly in the world. Recent years, karting has increased dramatically. There are karting clubs in London, Birmingham and Cardiff. They offer karting tracks, indoors as well as outdoors. They not only offer individual karting reservation but also the karting event for companies and office parties.

Football

Britain is most famous for its football games. Even the modern global football game evolved from the traditional football games played in England in the 19th century. British people are keen to watch football games, whether it is national champion or local sports games. They would go to the stadium together, or watch the game on TV at pubs. It is hard to line out the reasons, but it is easy to feel their enthusiasm





for this sports game when you are there.

Now British people have four kinds of football games: the FA Premier League, the Championship, League One and League Two. Altogether there are hundreds of football games every year. The existing governing bodies are The Football Association, the Scottish Football Association and the Football Association of Wales.

The Football Association (The FA) was founded in 1863, the oldest national football association. The headquarter is at Wembley Stadium, London. The FA supervises all competitive football matches in England and runs the annual FA Cup. All of England's professional football teams are members of the Football Association. The FA's financial benefits come from its ownership of the rights to England internationals and the FA Cup. The turnover for 2008 was 261.8 million pounds, from which it gained a profit of 16.6 million pounds.

The football clubs in Britain are also world famous. For example, the Manchester United Football Club is an English Premier League football club. Its stadium, Old Trafford in Greater Manchester is nowadays the tourism attraction.

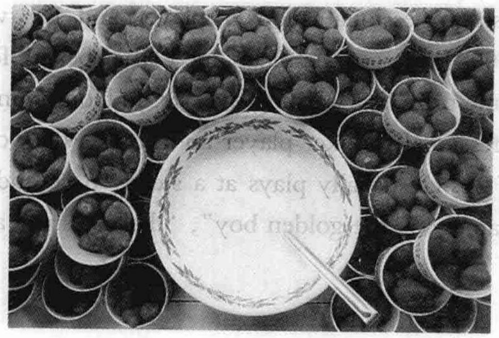
Leeds United Association Football Club is usually called as Leeds United. It is an English professional association football club, with its base in Leeds, West Yorkshire.

The club's home is the Elland Road stadium in Beeston. They played there since 1919.

Tennis

The United Kingdom does not only boast its originality in football games, also it enjoys the reputation for the foundation of modern tennis games. In the late 19th century, the game was known as "lawn tennis", which used to be associated closely with other field games. "Lawn tennis" was a game devised by Major Walter Clopton Wingfield. In 1877, the club's name changed into "The All England Croquet and Lawn Tennis Club" and initiated the first Lawn Tennis Championship. Today's tennis rules

LEEDS UNITED



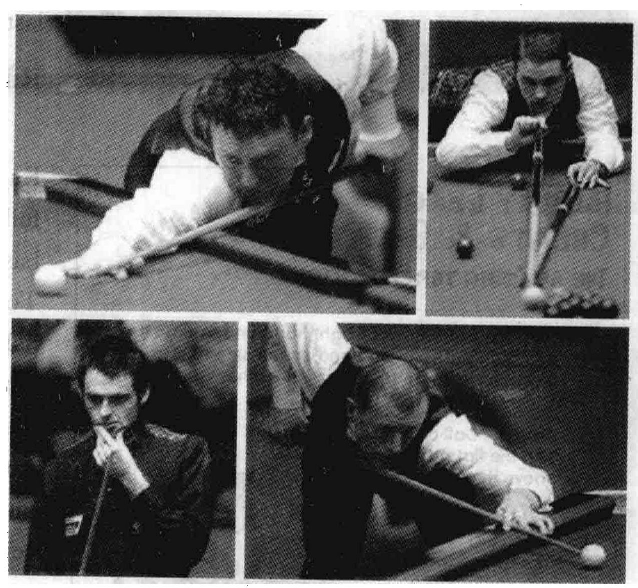


are quite similar to the former rules except that the height of the net and posts and the distance of the service line from the net.

The Championships, Wimbledon, is the oldest tennis tournament in the world. It firstly was held in London suburb of Wimbledon in 1877. The tournament takes place over two weeks, usually in late June and early July. Watching Wimbledon is a spectacular scene in Britain because eating of strawberries and creams is Wimbledon traditions! However, enjoying the delicious snacks is not the only tradition. Spectators that day can drink nice pimms.

Snooker

Snooker is a kind of cue sports which is a traditional game in Britain. The game requires a regulation table (full-size table), a cue and snooker balls (one white cue ball, 15 red balls and six colored balls, each worth different points). A player wins an individual game by scoring more points than the opponent and the player has to reach certain number of individual games in order to win the match. It is generally believed that the game was invented by British Army officers when they were stationed in India. At that time, Billiards was a popular activity. British Army officers derived a new game by adding colored balls.



The World Professional Billiard and Snooker Association (WPBSA), also known as World Snooker, was founded in 1968 and is the governing body of the professional games with its base in Bristol, UK. The World Snooker Championship is the summit for any snooker players who wish to win the prize money and world ranking points. The game is usually held at the Crucible Theatre in Sheffield, Britain.

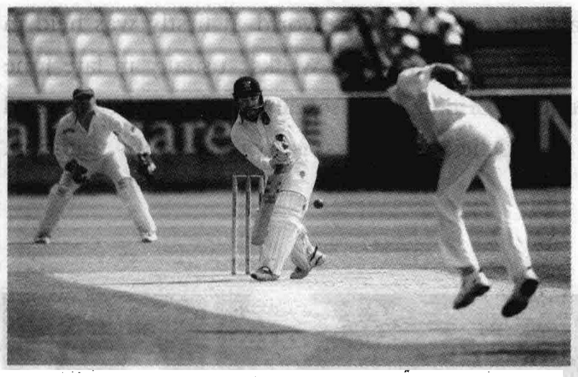
John Higgins. British people love John Higgins for his skill in playing snookers. He is a Scottish professional snooker player, and has won World Champion for several times (1998, 2007, and 2009). And he is the world's No. 1 player on three occasions and has been in the World's Top 16 players for over a decade. He is given the nickname as the "wizard of wishaw" and "the kid" by his people.

Ronald Antonio O'Sullivan. He is an English professional snooker player and has won World Champion for three occasions (2001, 2004, and 2008). He got the nickname "the rocket" for his rapid playing style. And now he is the second on the all-time prize list, earning over six million pounds.

Stephen Gordon Hendry. He is a Scottish professional snooker player and he was the youngest-ever World Champion, winning the game at the age of 21. He usually plays at a steady pace and sometimes he was very aggressive in playing. He got the nicknames as "the golden boy", "the maestro" and "the ice man".

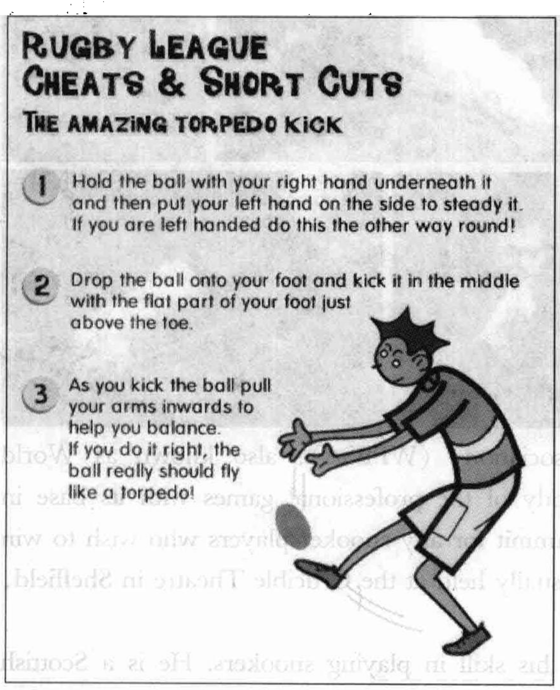
Cricket

Cricket is a one of the most popular sports games in Britain for it was played in England as early as in the 16th century. Playing cricket, the players should be formally dressed, normally with white trousers.



It is a team sport in which two teams combat as one tries to bowls and fields and the other tries to score and remain in the field. The two teams would change the roles when the batting team used its all overs (or batsmen). The rules of the game are called the Laws of Cricket and the International Cricket Council is responsible for supervising the rules. This game would last for days depending on the form of the match.

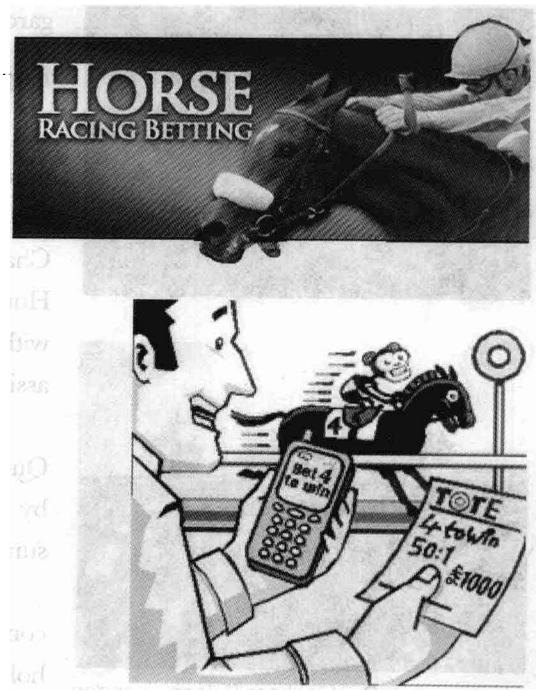
Rugby League



Rugby League has many fans in Northern England, especially in Yorkshire and Lancashire. It is a full-contact form of football in which two teams (each has thirteen players) play with a prolate spheroid ball. To win the game, one team has to carry or kick the ball towards the opponent's goal line to win the points, which is called a try. The opponent would try to block the try by tackling the players who carry the ball. The game was originated from the early football in Britain. Football was the most loved sports game in the 19th century in private schools in England. Each school created their own rules when playing the game. That was players could hold the ball or kick the ball when playing on the field. The kicking and handling the balls then later formed different rules, therefore, codified by The Football Association and the Rugby Football Union. The United Kingdom will hold the Rugby League World Cup in 2013 for the 5th time.

Horse Racing

Horse Racing is a spectator sport in the UK and most people enjoy betting on the racing very much.



There are two main forms of horse racing in Britain: unobstructed distances racing, also known as flat racing, and National Hunt racing, which is with obstacles like fences or hurdles. There is also a point to point racing, which is mainly for amateur riders. The British Horseracing Authority supervises and regulates the horse racing in the country. It is generally believed that the first racing took place in Britain around 200AD. However, the first documented racing was in 1174, in London during a horse fair.

Britain has a long history of horse racing and wagering. In many towns there are "Betting shops". And the shops would be easily located every where near a pub, the Labour Exchange and the Post Office, where the customers might be in a mood to bet. Betting used to be taxed by the government. The money was collected by the Horserace Betting Levy Board. According to the board that 90% of the tax would be used for the improvement of horseracing. In 2001 the Government abolished the tax on betting, which used to be 9% of the stake or the winnings. Now the tax goes to the punters. Nowadays, with the technology, punters can easily go online to place their bets.

IV. Tourism

British people love traveling, not only inside the British Isles but also enjoy visiting the European Continent. France, Italy, Greece and Spain are the favorite destinations for British people to travel because they love the wonderful food and the sunshine there. In this section we will be mainly looking at the tourist attractions in Britain, like the Lake District, the Edinburgh Castle, the coastal city Whitby. All of these places are very beautiful tourist attractions for British family excursions.

Where do British people go for travel?

Like people in other countries, British people love to explore new things. The long paid holidays and many religious and bank holidays offer them good opportunities to travel with the family and friends. The sunny places would always be a good choice for British people due to their long humid climate. Nowadays, with the improvement of the airlines and the vouchers and discounts offered by different international airlines, more and more British people can make bigger travel plans to other countries like Asian countries. However for shorter-day-trip, they would stay in their own country.

Castles

British people are very proud of their history, especially when there are many landmarks revealing the history of aristocracy — It is not difficult to spot castles in the cities or towns in Britain, featuring the glory of the empire. Today, most castles are open to the tourisms. Families usually take their kids to visit nearby castles to admire the architecture and life styles in the past. Also most castles have beautiful





Buckingham Palace, London

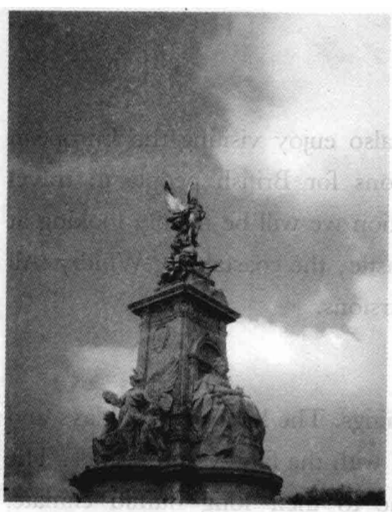
gardens, which offer nice scenery for people to relax.

England

Buckingham Palace is the official residence of the British monarch in London. It was built for the Duke of Buckingham in 1703 and then acquired by George III in 1761 for Queen Charlotte, during which time was known as "The Queen's House". It was improved and enlarged during the 19th century with three wings around a central courtyard. In 1837 it was assigned as the official royal palace of the British monarch.

The Victoria Memorial is a sculpture placed at the centre of Queen's Gardens in front of Buckingham Palace. It was carved by Sir Thomas Brock in 1911 and Aston Webb constructed the surrounding structure.

There is a large garden at the rear of the palace, which is considered as the biggest private garden in London. The Queen holds her annual summer parties here. The artificial lake was constructed in 1828 and the water was directed from the Serpentine, which runs through the Hyde Park. Near the Royal Palace locates the Royal Mews, which are the stables of the British Royal Family in London. Royal carriages like the Gold State Coach are there.

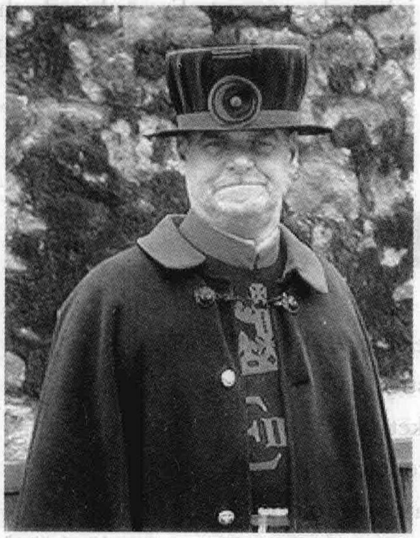




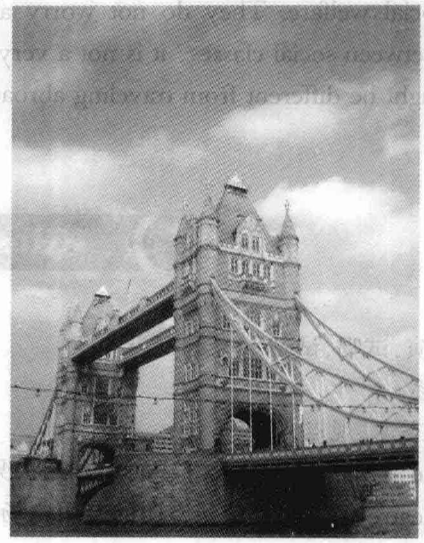
London Tower

London Tower was founded by William the Conqueror in 1078, serving as Her Majesty's Royal Palace and Fortress in the past. All through the history, the tower was reconstructed several times by Richard the Lion Heart in the 12th century and by Henry III as well. The tower was once used as a prison, especially for those with high status and royal prisoners. It was also used as a place for execution and torture. The tower was also used as the Royal Armory in the middle ages when the armor was produced at the Tower. During the Charles II, they made it open for display.

The Tower today mainly is a tourist attraction. Visitors will see the British Crown Jewels, the armor



Beefeaters



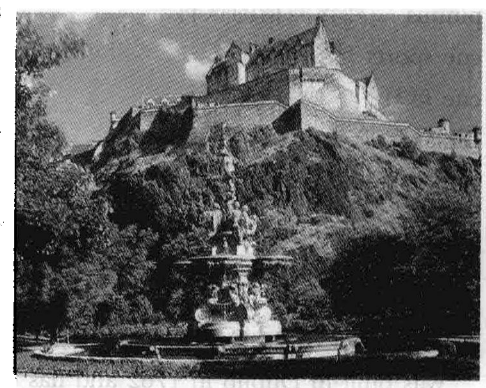
London Tower

collection from the Royal Armories, and a remnant of the wall of the Roman fortress. A very interesting scene is to see the Yeomen Warders, who are also known as Beefeaters.

Beefeaters in the past served as the guard of the prisoners and safeguard the British Crown jewels. However, today they act as tour guides to offer the information for the tourists about the Tower.

Edinburgh Castle

Edinburgh Castle is a fortress in the city of Edinburgh, Scotland, sitting on the top of a great volcanic rock which was formed around 350 million years ago. The rock has its three sides as cliffs, leaving the only entrance to the east. These natural features made the castle as a natural fortress in many historical events, such as the Wars of Scottish Independence in the 14th century. It was recognized as a historical monument in the 19th century and by then there were several restorations.



The Edinburgh Castle today is a ceremonial place and presents several regimental museums to the visitors. It is the symbol of Edinburgh and Scotland.

Other Places

Apart from some historical places, monuments or museums, British people would love to go to natural scenery to get relaxed. Blackpool has always been a tourist destination for British families because they can enjoy the sunny beaches and illuminations there. Whitby is also a coastal city, which boasts the best fish and chips in Britain. Lake District, as the name indicates, is the attraction for people to stay overnights to enjoy the scenery, the ferry and nice food and beer there.

All in all, British people today find that traveling is easy due to the highly advanced national transportation system. They do not worry about getting the tickets or the price because several airlines try their best to attract customers. And normally when it is the holiday time, there would be nice discount offered by the travel agencies and airlines. What's more, British people's colourful leisure life also comes

from the social welfare. They do not worry about their job and payment. Even though there is still distinction between social classes, it is not a very difficult thing for the ordinary family to plan the fieldtrip though it might be different from traveling abroad.

Glossary

audition 试演,试唱,试音
eviction 驱逐
perspective 态度,观点,思考方法
comfort zone 让人感到安全或舒适的地方或状况
repertory theatre 保留剧目轮演剧团的专用剧场
coffee lounge 咖啡厅
turnover 营业额,成交量
rind 某些水果的厚皮,外壳
bergamot orange 香柠檬
Old Trafford 老特拉福德
originality 独创性,创意,独特构想
field games 田赛
service 发球
tournament 锦标赛,联赛
pimms 一种含酒精的饮料
cue sports 球杆运动
cue 球杆
Billiards 撞球
aggressive 好斗的,挑衅的
maestro 大师
Cricket 板球运动
full-contact 全面接触
prolate spheroid 椭球体
try 橄榄球运动中,在对方球门线后带球触地,持球触地得分
unobstructed 通畅
flat racing 无障碍比赛
punter 顾客,主顾
excursions 短途旅行
execution 死刑
armor 盔甲
Ferris wheel 摩天轮
Star of Nanchang 南昌之星,160 高的摩天轮
cantilever 悬臂,桥梁或其他构架的伸臂
River Thames 泰晤士河
firework 烟花

Cultural Notes

1. **The Gold State Coach** an enclosed, eight horse-drawn carriage used by the British Royal Family. It was built in Dublin in 1762 and has been used at the coronation of every British monarch since George IV. The coach's great age, weight, and lack of manoeuverability have limited its use to grand state occasions such as coronations and the jubilee of a monarch.The coach weighs four tons and is 24 feet (7.3 m) long and 12 feet (3.7 m) high. It is gilded and features painted panels by Giovanni Cipriani and rich gilded sculpture including three cherubs on the roof (representing England, Ireland and Scotland) and four tritons, one at each corner (representing Britain's imperial power). The body of the coach is slung by braces covered with Morocco leather and decorated with gilt buckles. The interior is lined with velvet and satin. The Gold State Coach is pulled by a team of eight horses wearing the Red Morocco harness. Originally driven by a coachman, the horses are now led by riders walking alongside them. When not in use the coach is kept at the Royal Mews of Buckingham Palace.

2. **Tourism in Wales** Wales is an emerging tourist destination, with 8,078,900 visitors to National Trust and Welsh Tourist Board destinations in 2002. In 2005 tourism in Wales contributed to the Economy of Wales supporting over 100,000 service-sector jobs, more than 8% of total employees in Wales. The most popular activities undertaken by tourists in Wales were walking, shopping, hiking in the mountains and visiting historic attractions, museums and galleries. Over 1.1 million trips were made to Wales by overseas tourists in 2006. The main countries of origin of overseas visitors were the Republic of Ireland, USA, and Germany. The capital, Cardiff is the most popular area in Wales for tourists, with 11.7 million visitors in 2006, and provides 8,400 full time jobs in the sector. In 2004, tourists spent the most money in Gwynedd, followed by Conwy and Cardiff.

Questions for Discussion

1. Please summarize what you read from this chapter, and tell your friend about the British popular sports games.
2. What do you know about the British people travel destinations?
3. Please do independent research based on what you read from this chapter, and find more information about British Castles in England.
4. What do you think of British people's leisure activities? Are there any similar activities to Chinese's?
5. What do you think of reading habits that most British people enjoy? What do you think are the main factors contributing to this phenomenon?

Supplementary Reading

London Eye

The Merlin Entertainments London Eye (known more simply as The London Eye, and also known as the Millennium Wheel), at a height of 135 metres (443 ft), is the largest Ferris wheel in Europe, and has become the most popular paid tourist attraction in the United Kingdom, visited by over three million people in one year. At the time it was erected, in 1999, it was the tallest Ferris wheel in the world, until it was surpassed by the Star of Nanchang (160 m) in May 2006, and then the Singapore Flyer (165 m) on 11 February 2008. However, it is still described by its operators as "the world's tallest cantilevered observation wheel" (as the entire structure is supported by an A-frame on one side only).



The London Eye is located at the western end of Jubilee Gardens, on the South Bank of the River Thames in the London Borough of Lambeth in England, between Westminster Bridge and Hungerford Bridge. The site is adjacent to that of the former Dome of Discovery, which was built for the Festival of Britain in 1951.

Design and construction

The wheel carries 32 sealed and air-conditioned egg-shaped passenger capsules, attached to its external circumference, each capsule representing one of the London Boroughs. Each 10 tonne capsule holds 25 people, who are free to walk around inside the capsule, though seating is provided. It rotates at 26 cm (10 in) per second (about 0.9 km/h or 0.6 mph) so that one revolution takes about 30 minutes. The wheel does not usually stop to take on passengers; the rotation rate is slow enough to allow passengers to walk on and off the moving capsules at ground level. It is, however, stopped to allow disabled or elderly passengers time to embark and disembark safely.

The rim of the Eye is supported by tie rods and resembles a huge spoked bicycle wheel, and was depicted as such in a poster advertising a charity cycle race. The lighting for the London Eye was redone with LED lighting from Color Kinetics in December 2006 to allow digital control of the lights as opposed to the manual replacement of gels over fluorescent tubes.

The wheel was designed by architects David Marks, Julia Barfield, Malcolm Cook, Mark Sparrowhawk, Steven Chilton, Frank Anatole and Nic Bailey. Mace were responsible for construction management with Hollandia as the main steelwork contractor and Tilbury Douglas as the civils contractor. Consulting engineers Tony Gee & Partners designed the foundation works while Beckett Rankine designed the marine works.

History

The London Eye was formally opened by the then Prime Minister, Tony Blair, on 31 December 1999, although it was not opened to the public until March 2000 because of technical problems. Since its opening, the Eye, operated by Merlin Entertainments, has become a major landmark and tourist attraction.

By July 2002, 8.5 million people had ridden the Eye. It had planning permission only for five years, but at that time Lambeth Council agreed to plans to make the attraction permanent.

Since 1 January 2005, the Eye has been the focal point of London's New Year celebrations, with 10-minute fireworks displays taking place involving fireworks fired from the wheel itself.

In 2008 the Tussauds Group bought out the other two joint owners, British Airways and the Marks Barfield family (the lead architects). Following Merlin Entertainments purchase of the Tussauds Group in 2007, it now owns 100% of the Eye. British Airways continued its brand association, but from the beginning of 2008 the name "British Airways" was dropped from the logo.

On 12 August 2009 the London Eye saw another re-brand, this time calling it "The Merlin Entertainments London Eye" to show Merlin Entertainments' ownership. A new logo was designed for the attraction - this time taking the actual form of an eye made out of London's famous landmarks. This also came at the time when the new Merlin Entertainments London Eye 4D Experience pre-flight show was launched underneath the ticket centre in County Hall.

During the bidding process of the 2012 Olympic Games, the London bid organisers announced the Olympic emblem would be attached to the Eye for the duration of the 2012 Summer Olympics.

On 5 June 2008 it was announced that 30 million people had ridden the London Eye since its opening in March 2000.

In 2009 Merlin Entertainments opened a pre-flight 4D Experience at The London Eye, which is

included in the ticket price. The newly refurbished ticket hall and 4D cinema experience was designed by architects Kay Elliott working with Merlin Sudios project designer Craig Sciba. Merlin Studios later appointed Simex-Iwerks as the 4D theatre hardware specialists.

Further Reading

1. David and Charles. *Castles*: *England+Scoland+Ireland+Wales*. Plantagent Fry, 2005.
2. A. G. Smith. *British Castles*. Dover Publications, 2004.
3. Denis Lipman. *A Yank Back to England*: *The Prodigal Tourism Returns*. Gemma Media, 2010.

Useful Websites

1. www.visitbritain.com
2. www.travelbritain.com

Chapter 16

Values and Beliefs



导 读

Introduction

本章是关于英国人的社会价值观和生活价值观以及他们的宗教信仰。价值观就是指在生活中人们认同什么，追求什么，是对世界的看法和观点。英国是个尊重传统的国家，在现代科技发达的社会，英国的城市中心经常会在周末举办家庭手工制作品的集市。传统的手工艺品在英国很受欢迎。英国人认为传统的物品或手工艺是无价的财富。同时英国也是一个尊重差异的国家。在英国，英语的口音非常多，如伦敦口音，牛津口音等。英国人很喜欢讨论不同地区的不同发音。除了多种英语口音，近些年随着英国留学生的增多，英国社会与外来文化接触更多，社会的宽容度和文化的多元性都成了英国社会发展的新趋势。英国大多数人都有宗教信仰。英国的国教是基督教新教，人口中有71%是基督教徒。英国也是一个多信仰的社会，有天主教、佛教、印度教、犹太教、伊斯兰教和锡克教。约有23%的英国人没有特定的宗教信仰。

I. Introduction

In Britain, the Office for National Statistics is the organization working to collect data for England and Wales. The General Register Office for Scotland and the Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency are responsible for the data in their respective regions. The last census was conducted in 2001 and the next one will be in 2011. Therefore, the current data we could access to shows that the population of UK was 58,789,194. There is 92.1% are white people, 2.0% black, 1.8% Indian, 1.3% Pakistan, 0.5% Bangladesh, 0.4% South Asian, 0.4% Chinese and 0.4% others and 1.2% mixed race. Between 2001 and 2008 the population increased dramatically with an average annual rate of 0.5 %, which was only 0.3% between 1991 and 2001.

Comparing to other European nations, the UK has comparatively lower percentage of the immigrants. But even though, the immigration is now contributing to the rising population. Due to the policy issued by the European Union that citizens of the EU have the right to live and work in any member state. This led to the rising immigrants to the UK. What's more, the UK boasts of the world prestigious education, which attracts more and more overseas students to pursue higher level education

there. All of these contribute to the rising of the UK population as well as lead the culture to be more diversified and tolerant.

II. What do British people value?

Manner

In Britain, people always watch their manners. Speaking manner, table manner, manner you should take when making a presentation or just when you are walking on the street. There are several things British people value especially when in public.

1. Don't talk too loud when in public. Especially, one should not talk too loud on the bus or the subway. It is very common for British people to read newspaper or novel or magazines when they travel on transportation. It would be very rare to hear loud voices, even if it might be the mother scolding children.
2. Always use the magic words: please, thank you, excuse me etc. British people value politeness. They greet each other on the street. They sometimes even say hi to a stranger if they come across each other on the narrow road.
3. Sit at the back when on the bus. It is a common practice for British people to sit at the back when getting on the bus because they wish to leave the front seats for the others, especially the old.
4. Queue in one line. When go shopping, sending the postcard at the post office, draw money at the bank or using the toilet, British people would always line in one queue. They even line up to wait to be admitted in the pub in the evening.
5. Reservation. British people like making reservations for dinner, taxi and many other things as well. For example, if you wish to go out in the evening and you plan to go by taxi, the best thing to do is to phone the taxi center and arrange a taxi to pick you up. For students, they should always stick to the suggested appointment time to meet their supervisor because as the tradition goes, British people value punctuality very much.

Respect for Individuality

British people respect individuality. They respect each other's privacy. Most people love to read the latest news about celebrities, but in their own life they mind their privacy and do respect the others. For example, British people do not ask questions like "How much money do you earn?" "Have you married?" or "How old are you?" because they consider these issues very private. With regard to the respect for individuality, British people also respect for the freewill of the people. That is they can say what they want to say. This is fully presented in the media industry.

Tolerance and Honesty

British people value the disposition that shows tolerance and honesty because these qualities are the backbones of a person. Tolerance is best displayed in recent years when Britain is becoming more and more diversified in culture and religion. As what we will see in the following sections that the UK is a country with the majority holding Christianity as their religion. However, recent years, with more and more immigrants, Britain welcomes people with different religious beliefs. The country shows the

tolerance for the religious pluralism. As mentioned in the Guardian (17th May 2006) that this is a new experiment with all the worlds' religion represented in Britain.

Scientific Curiosity

Maintaining strong scientific curiosity has always been a traditional value in Britain. No need to mention the reason because if we check the universities, we will realize how much enthusiasm British people have towards the pursuit of the science. The UK produced so many famous scientists, such as Charles Darwin, Sir Isaac Newton, Joseph Wilson Swan and Stephen Hawking etc.

III. Beliefs

United Kingdom is a religious country with most people having religious beliefs. According to the 2001 census in UK, Christianity remains the major religion, together with Islam, Hinduism, Sikhism, Judaism and Buddhism. And among those, 71.6% belongs to Christianity.

Christianity is the main religion in Britain. The Church of England is the Established Church. It retains representation in the UK Parliament with the church's 26 bishops representing in the House of Lords as Lords Spiritual. The Church of England retains the right to draft legislative measures, which related to the religious administration and which can be passed to the Parliament.

Christianity

How did it Start?

Christianity started about 2000 years ago in Judea (present Israel) with Jesus Christ and His disciples. Jesus was born to a family of carpentry. His exact birth date was not known. He spent his early life in a small village in Galilee, which locates today the north of Israel. He was baptized in Jordan by John. During that time, Jews hated the rule of Rome. Jesus rose as a Jewish prophet and teacher who was considered as the Son of God. Jesus preached in Israel during the time of Augustus. He was not against the rule of Rome, but demanded the freewill in daily life, encouraging a purification of the Jewish religion that would free Israel and establish the realm of God on earth.

Jesus was very influential. He urged a moral code based on love. He asked the faithful to follow his lessons, abandoning worldly concern. He preached many fables, mostly short and originated from village life. His words were sharp and effective and he claimed that the words were not from him but God. Jesus had many followers. This angered the upper classes and the leaders of the Jewish religion. Together with the Roman governor, Jesus was put to death, crucified on the cross.

The followers of Jesus believed that he was resurrected on the third day after his death, which was a proof that he was the Son of God. This belief helped the religion spread over the area in the Middle East, within the Roman Empire and beyond.

The Early Christianity

At the beginning, the Christian converts were Jewish by birth and followed the basic Jewish law. Their belief that Christ was divine as well as human caused hostility among other Jews. Many disciples later left Israel and traveled throughout west Asia. Gradually, Christianity won an increasing number of followers. And it established itself in the Roman Empire. Around 303AD, Christians were about 1/3 of the Roman population, and they were persecuted as the pagans. Later in 313 AD, Christianity claimed

itself as legal religion, and in 325 AD Emperor Constantine proclaimed that Christianity would be protected. According to the historical records, Constantine the Great dreamed that he would fight and conquer beneath the Cross ("in hoc signo, vinces") before he fought the Milvian Bridge battle in 312 AD. It was after he won the battle that he believed in Christianity. With the decline of the Roman Empire and the invasions of the Germans, Christianity entered a long period of missionary activity and expansion. Catholicism spread among the Germanic peoples, the Celtic and the Hungarians. In 597 AD, under the summon of Gregory I (540-604AD), the missionary landed on the England from Rome. Later, the mission spread to Scotland and other areas.

Christianity in the Medieval

Around 500 AD, the system of regulations became popular and this gave rise to the establishment of monasteries. Monasticism then became powerful in Europe and there were many centres in Ireland and Scotland.

In 1095, Pope summoned the knights in Christian countries to start the first Crusade against Islam. It was because from the 7th century onwards, Islam conquered the Christian lands of the Middle East, North Africa and much of Spain, which led to numerous military struggles. At that time, the Europe was prosperous with material and manpower, and this made it possible to venture the war. At the same time, the spirit of Christianity was deep-rooted and interweaved with politics. Popes tried to throne not only the churches but also the countries. However, the attempt ended in failure in 1291 with the fail of Crusade.

The Reform

During the Medieval when the Christianity developed dramatically, countless churches had been constructed and decorated. And there were many activities carried out in the church. People had to devote their materials for the ceremonies. At that time, there was a concern in public about the corruption in the church. It was under such a background that in 1517 Martin Luther published *The Ninety-Five Theses*, which signaled the beginning of the Protestant Reformation.

The Protestant Reformation began as an attempt to reform the Catholic Church. The doctrine of Catholic Church was considered as false and ecclesiastic malpractice: the teaching and the sale of indulgences, and simony, the selling and buying of clerical offices. These were all regarded as the evidence of the corruption of the church's hierarchy.

***Martin Luther* (*1483—1546*)**



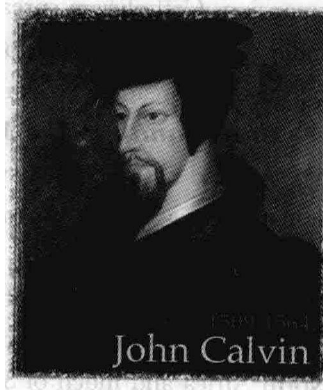
Martin Luther was a German priest and theology professor. He criticized indulgence and other corrupted activities in his book, *The Ninety-Five Theses*. He strongly opposed the claim that freedom from God's punishment of sin could be purchased with money. He refused to retract his writings at the demand of Pope Leo X in 1520 and the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V in 1521 led to the excommunication by the pope and condemnation as an outlaw by the emperor.

Martin Luther preached that salvation is a free gift from God and people can get it through faith in Jesus. His belief challenged the authority of the Pope of the Roman Catholic Church, which taught that the Bible is the only source of divinely revealed knowledge. Martin Luther also translated the Bible into German language, which

contributed a lot to the development of the standard German. However, there are controversial views about Martin Luther due to his comments about the Jews. He stated that the Jews' homes should be destroyed, money confiscated and liberty curtailed.

The reformers soon disagreed among the views and divided movement according to doctrinal differences between Luther, Zwingli and John Calvin, resulting in the establishment of different and rival Protestant Churches.

***John Calvin* (*1509—1564*)**



John Calvin was a French theologian and pastor during the Protestant Reformation. He was very influential and his study of Christianity was later called Calvinism. He broke from the Roman Catholic Church around 1530 and due to the violence against Protestants in France, he fled to Basel, Switzerland. He then published *Institutes of the Christian Religion* in 1536.

Calvin went to Strasbourg and became the minister of a church of French refugees there. And later, he was invited to Geneva to help reform the church there. Calvin confronted the resistance when he introduced new forms of church government, but with the supportive refugees and new elections, Calvin's opponents were forced out. Calvin spent his final years promoting the Reformation.

Calvin was very influential with his writing and preaching. Apart from the Institutes, he also wrote commentaries on most theological books and treatises. He also gave regular sermons in Geneva. He gave a lot of thought of predestination and the absolute sovereignty of God in salvation.

***Huldrych Zwingli* (*1484—1531*)**



Huldrych (or Ulrich) Zwingli was a Switzerland leader in the Reformation. He became the pastor of the Grossmunster in Zurich in 1519 where he preached the ideas on the reformation of the Catholic Church. He firstly criticized the custom of fasting during Lent in 1522 and then he condemned the corruption in the ecclesiastical hierarchy in his publications. The Reformation spread to the other parts of the country and Zwingli formed an alliance of Reformed cantons. Zwingli's ideas were caught up by Martin Luther. They together with other reformers met at the Marburg Colloquy. They agreed on several points only and failed to reach an accord on the doctrine.

Zwingli's alliance tried to block the food on the Catholic cantons, which led to the attach on Zurich. Zwingli was injured at the battle and died at the age of 47.

Reformation's Influence on England

England was not very influenced by the Reformation movement which mainly happened in the continental Europe partly because the political separation of the Church of England from Rome under Henry VIII.

The Church of England

The Church of England is the officially established Christian church in England. And it is the Mother Church of the worldwide Anglican Communion, which is an international association of national and regional Anglican churches. The Church of England claims itself to be both Catholic and Reformed:

- Catholic in that it views itself as a part of the universal church of Jesus Christ in unbroken continuity

with the early apostolic and later medieval church. This is expressed in its strong emphasis on the teachings of the early Church Fathers.

- **Reformed** to the extent that it has been shaped by some of the doctrinal and institutional principles of the 16th century Protestant Reformation. The more Reformed character finds expression in the Thirty-Nine Articles of religion, established as part of the settlement of religion under Queen Elizabeth I. The customs and liturgy of the Church of England, as expressed in the Book of Common Prayer, are based on pre-Reformation traditions but have been influenced by Reformation liturgical and doctrinal principles.

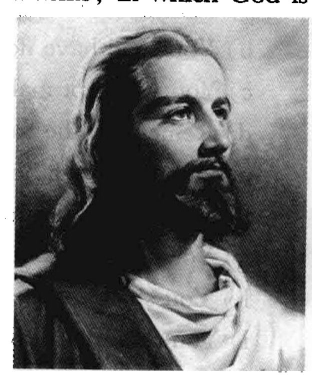
As it was recorded, Christianity landed in Britain in the first or second century and existed independently of the Church of Rome. Pope Gregory I asked Saint Augustine of Canterbury from Rome to evangelize. This is known as the Gregorian mission. Augustine established his church in Canterbury, the capital city of Kent. He contributed a lot to the development of Christianity in England. The English churches had been under papal authority for nearly a thousand years. They were then separated from Rome in 1534 during the reign of King Henry VIII, who were then excommunicated by Pope Paul III.

Belief of Christianity

Christianity takes beliefs seriously. In the Middle Ages, the doctrines were carefully followed. In the 16th century, the reformers emphasized true faith as the only requirement for salvation. We will look at several topics on Christianity beliefs.

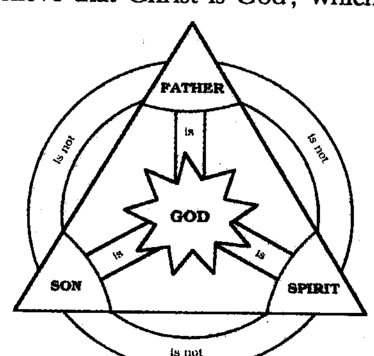
1. The Christian God

The Christian God is a personal God, who has "personality" and the capability of both relationships with other personal beings. This is clearly indicated in both Old and New Testaments, in which God is described in personal terms, like father, shepherd, etc.



2. Jesus Christ

Jesus Christ remains an important figure as his humble origins and short life. And he is in the central focus of the religion. Traditionally, Jesus was viewed as a real human being, the Messiah, the Son of Man, the Son of God and God. Firstly, Jesus was believed to be a human being born in Bethlehem (some believed that this was merely the appearance). Christian also believed that Jesus is the Messiah. The word "Christ" comes from the Greek for "Messiah". The affirmations of Jesus as the Messiah could be identified in the New Testament: the Pauline and other epistles refer to Jesus as "Christ". Jesus was considered as "Son of Man" and he cited himself as Son of Man in his ministry. Christians believe that Christ is God, which is stated in the New Testament.



3. Afterlife

Christian believes in the afterlife, which is shown in their belief in Heaven, where believers enjoy the presence of God and freedom from suffering and sin. A slightly lesser Christians believe in the existence of Hell, where sinners would be punished.

4. The Trinity

Christians believe that there are three distinct personalities constituting the God: the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit. This

unique threefold God of Christian belief is referred to as the Trinity, which is from Latin "trinitas", meaning three.



5. The Holy Spirit

The Holy Spirit is the Third Person of the Trinity, co-equal with the Father and the Son. Being personal, like the other members of the Trinity, the Spirit is referred to as a "he", not an "it."

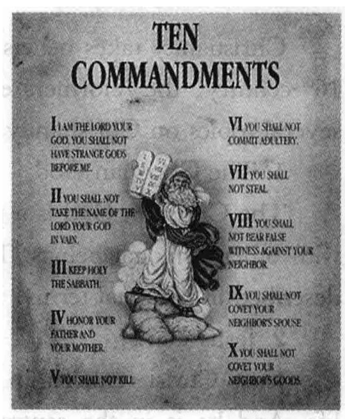
6. Angels

Belief in angels is common to Christianity. Angels are spiritual beings who are created by God before the world is created. Their role is to glorify God, minister to God, and, act as God's messengers to humans in matters of great importance. They also act as helpers of the faithful.

7. Salvation

Christians believe in the salvation when God raised Jesus from the dead and gave new life to the "mortal bodies". Present Christian churches concern about how humanity can be saved from sin and death. The Catholic Church teaches that salvation does not come without faithfulness and accordance with principles of love and baptize. The Protestants believe that salvation is a gift from God to individuals.

8. Ten Commandments



The Ten Commandments are a list of the most important behavioral rules in the Hebrew Scriptures (the Old Testament). For Christianity, the commandments have been regarded as the foundational laws that all Christians should conform to.

Ten Commandments

a) I am the Lord your God.

b) You shall have no other gods before me.

c) You shall not make wrongful use of the name of your God.

d) Remember the Sabbath and keep it holy.

e) Honor your father and mother.

f) You shall not murder.

g) You shall not commit adultery.

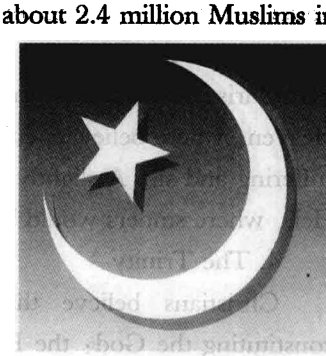
h) You shall not steal.

i) You shall not bear false witness against your neighbor.

j) You shall not covet your neighbor's wife and covet anything that belongs to your neighbor.

Islam

Islam was legalized in 1812 with the Trinitarian Act. And now there are about 2.4 million Muslims in the UK, most of who live in England and Wales. As indicated in the 2001 Census, 1,536,015 Muslims were living in England and Wales, 42,557 were living in Scotland, and 1,943 were living in Northern Ireland. Most of Muslim immigrants were from the former colonies, such as Bangladesh, India and Pakistan. There are some come from Muslim areas like Southwest Asia, Somalia, Maylaysia. Islam is the predominant religion in the Middle East, North Africa, and large part of Asia. And it is the second-largest religion in the world.



Origin

The name of Islam is derived from the Arabic word "salam," which is interpreted as "peace". A Muslim is a follower of Islam. "Muslim" is an Arabic word which refers to a person who submits themselves to the will of God. Islam is believed to be founded by Muhammad the Prophet (peace be upon him) in 622. He lived from about 570 to 632. The religion commenced in Mecca. Muslims consider their religion as the completed and universal version of a monotheistic faith revealed at many times and places before.

Religious Practices

Religious practices include the Five Pillars of Islam. These are five duties that unite Muslims into a community. Islamic law acts on every aspect of life and society, including everything from dietary laws and banking to warfare, welfare and appropriate conditions for war.

The Five Pillars of Islam refers to the five duties, which are Shahadah (profession of faith), Salat (prayers), Zakat (giving of alms), Sawm (fasting) and Hajj (pilgrimage to Mecca).

Hinduism



According to 2001 Census, Hinduism had 558,342 believers in the UK and it was estimated in 2007 with 1.5 million followers. Most of the British Hindus live in England, and there are small communities exist in Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales.

Hinduism is the religion rooted in South Asia, especially in the Republic of India and Nepal. It is formed of diverse traditions and has no single founder and it is also known as the "oldest living religion" or the "oldest living major tradition". Hinduism is the world's third largest religion, after Christianity and Islam. It has around one billion followers in the world, with majority living in the Republic of India and most of others in Nepal, Bangladesh, and the Indonesian island of Bali.

Beliefs

Hinduism covers significant ethnic and cultural diversity. This religion develops with the innovation within and assimilation of external traditions into the Hindu culture. Hinduism has a variety of religious traditions. The main belief in Hindu includes: Dharma (ethics/duties), Samsara (the continuing cycle of birth, life, death and rebirth), Karma (action and subsequent reaction), Moksha (liberation from samsara), and the Yogas (paths or practices).

Hinduism is a diverse system with belief ranging from monotheism, polytheism, panentheism, pantheism, monism, and atheism. Its understanding of God depends on each particular tradition and philosophy. Most Hindus believe that the spirit or the true "self" is eternal. And Hindus believe in the following objectives of human life: righteousness, livelihood, sensual pleasure, liberation, and freedom.

Yoga is the pathways or methods that Hindus practice to reach the goal. There are four paths Hindus follow to achieve the spiritual goal of life: the path of love and devotion, the path of right action, the path of mediation, and the path of wisdom.

Buddhism

Buddhism traveled to Britain through South East Asia. Buddhism now in the UK has a steadily growing number of followers. UK 2001 census reported that there were 152,000 people believed in Buddhism.

Origin

Buddhism is a religion and philosophy which embodies a variety of traditions, beliefs and practices. It follows the teaching based on Siddhartha Gautama, who was known normally as the Buddha (the awakened one). Buddha lived and taught in the northeastern Indian subcontinent between the 6th and 4th centuries. He is considered and believed by the followers to be an awakened teacher who helps people end their suffering, and achieve nirvana.

According to the conventional recording, the Buddha was born in Lumbini around 563 BC, and he was raised in Kapilavastu (in present Nepal). Soon after his birth, an astrologer visited his father, the King Suddhodana, and told the father that Guatama would abandon the material world to become a holy man when he witnesses the life outside the palace. The King then had forbidden his son from leaving the palace. At the age of 29, Siddhartha ventured beyond the palace wall for several times. These experiences were later recorded in literature as the Four Sights. He learned the suffering of people. Guatama later abandoned royal life and live up to the spiritual mission.

Beliefs

Buddhism believes the cycle of suffering and rebirth for each being. Good deeds and bad actions will produce "seeds" in the mind which come to fruition either in this life or in a subsequent rebirth. Buddhism particularly believes that actions come from three aspects: body, speech and mind, which will all have a consequence. Rebirth refers to the process along which beings would go through a succession f lifetime. Buddhism rejects the concept of a permanent life or eternal soul.

Judaism

The first record about the Jewish in England possibly dated to the time of Norman Conquest, mentioning that there were Jews present in the UK since Roman. In 2007, the Jews in Britain were around 300,000 people (this is a very conservative figure according to the report).

Judaism is a system of beliefs originating from the Hebrew Bible. Jews believe that Judaism is the expression of the covenantal relationship God developed with the Children of Israel (originally a group of around a dozen tribes and later the Jewish people). Judaism claims to have a history more than 3000 years and is one of the oldest monotheistic religions. Its texts, traditions and values have inspired later religions: Christianity and Islam.

Sikhism

Sikhism, according to 2001 UK Census, had 336,179 followers in the UK. Most of the believers live in England, and there are small communities elsewhere in Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales.

Sikhism, which was founded in the 15th century, is the fifth-largest religion in the world. Sikhism's principal faith lies in the belief of the Universal God. They believe that the salvation should be achieved through disciplined, personal meditation on the name and message of God. Followers of Sikhism are called as Sikhs (meaning students or disciples).

Glossary

pagan 异教徒（信奉非主流宗教者）

monasticism 绝罚（开出教籍）（尤指天主教）

canton (瑞士等国的)行政区,州
papal 教宗的,教皇的
Ten Commandments 十诫
polytheism 多神论
monism 一神论
subcontinent 次大陆(尤指包括印度,巴基斯坦和孟加拉国在内的南亚次大陆)
nirvana 涅槃
Anglican 圣公会教徒
Messiah 弥赛亚,救世主基督
monotheism 一神论
pantheism 泛神论
atheism 无神论
astrology 占星术

Cultural Notes

The Ten Commandments a list of religious and moral imperatives that, according to the Hebrew Bible, were spoken by God (referred to in several names) to the people of Israel from the mountain referred to as Mount Sinai or Horeb, and later authored by God and given to Moses in the form of two stone tablets. They are recognized as a moral foundation in Judaism, Christianity and Islam. The English name "Decalogue" is derived from the Greek translation *dekalogos* "ten terms", found in the Septuagint at Exodus 34:28 and Deuteronomy 10:4. The phrase "Ten Commandments" is generally used to refer to similar passages in Exodus 20:2-17 and Deuteronomy 5:6-21.Some scholars distinguish between this "Ethical Decalogue" and a different series of ten commandments in Exodus 34:11-27 that they call the "Ritual Decalogue". Although Exodus 34 contains ten imperative statements, the passages in Exodus 20 and Deuteronomy 5 contain fourteen or fifteen. However, the Bible assigns the count of ten to both lists. Various denominations divide these statements into ten in different ways, and may also translate the Commandments differently.

Questions for Discussion

1. What are the main religious beliefs in the UK?
2. What do you know about the Religious Reformation?
3. What are the main beliefs of the Christianity?
4. Please summarize the origin and main beliefs of the religions mentioned in the chapter and share it with your friends.
5. What do you think is the social status and function of religious belief?

Supplementary Reading

A British Statement of Values: A Paper from the Humanist Philosophers Group

The core value which we believe can bring people together in this country is the ideal of an open, inclusive and cooperative society from which no group or individual is excluded, and from which no

group deliberately excludes itself.

Cooperation is not of course an exclusively British value, but in Britain it has been embodied and expressed in certain shared experiences, practices and institutions which have given it a distinctive flavor. For an older generation, the value of cooperation was epitomized by the experience of the Second World War and especially the Blitz — a situation in which everyone was in it together and had to pull together. For the post-war generation it was exemplified in the institutions of the welfare state, such as the National Health Service, public service broadcasting, a state system of education, and social security. More recently such institutions have come under threat, and perhaps they have never commanded universal support, but even those who make use of private health care or private education are likely still to acknowledge the importance of public provision, and for the majority of people in this country such institutions, to which everyone contributes and from which everyone can benefit, continue to embody the ideal of mutual dependence and reciprocity.

The value of cooperation can be contrasted, in one direction, with an ethos of rugged individualism, which insists on the absolute primacy of individual rights. From the perspective of cooperation, rights require recognition of social responsibilities. Rights and responsibilities are mutually supportive. The cultural experience of this country is significantly different from that of the United States of America, for instance. The cult of individual self-sufficiency has much less appeal, and neither the widespread support in the US for the right to bear arms nor the "weakest to the wall" approach to economic life has great resonance here.

The value of cooperation can also be contrasted, in the other direction, with a strident nationalism. There is a British brand of nationalism, typically focused on royalty, tradition and heritage — not to mention brands of English, Scottish and Welsh nationalism whose relation to "Brutishness" has still to be worked out. But there is also a distrust of formal oaths of allegiance, an acceptance of diversity and individuality, even a fondness for eccentricity. The value of cooperation is rooted in more spontaneous expressions of community such as neighborliness, the traditional British pub, the music festival, and support for the local sports team.

Cooperation understood as reciprocity carries with it a commitment to the idea of fair play. This means a rejection of cheating and free-riding and benefiting at other people's expense, but it does not mean a rigid conformity to rules for their own sake. Cooperation for mutual benefit requires impartial rules which ensure that people do not exploit one another unfairly, but those rules get their force from the spirit of cooperation and are not ends in themselves. The rules of the road, for instance, are essential to enable all road users, motorists and cyclists and pedestrians, to get around without endangering one another, and are greatly preferable to anarchic chaos, but it would be pedantic for pedestrians to refuse to cross the road at a pedestrian crossing until the green light appears even if there is no traffic in sight.

The value of cooperation is a participatory ideal, stressing the importance of involving everyone in contributing to the common good. This entails empowering individuals to enable them to contribute. Though the value of equality remains contentious, there is a deep revulsion at *huge inequalities* and broad support for the value of equality of opportunity. That means removing the hurdles of discrimination and prejudice which prevent people from participating in society's goods, and it requires also the positive provision of education and other facilities which enable people to participate.

The emphasis on participation entails also active encouragement for minority communities and sub-

cultures *not to separate themselves off from the shared culture.* Modern British society is diverse, pluralistic and multicultural. This is a real strength, but it should not lead us to see our society as simply a collection of mutually isolated communities. The participatory ideal requires us to challenge any ways of life which trap individuals in oppressive roles and relations, even if those ways of life claim legitimation from other cultures. It means rejecting, for instance, the view that girls should not be educated to the same level as boys, or have independent lives, and rejecting practices of forced marriage.

A particular implication of this participatory ideal is the importance of English as a shared language. In practical terms, it means that people settling in this country whose first language is not English should be actively encouraged and enabled to learn it. Only by so doing can they play an active part in the wider society. A suggestive image which helps to capture the ideal of cooperation is that of society as an ongoing conversation in which everyone can participate. Perhaps the nearest we can get to a "social glue" which holds everyone together despite their differences is the sharing of a common language.

Thinking of our society as a shared "conversation" is more than just a telling image. It underpins the values of freedom of speech and freedom of expression. These are important rights, but they are more than just individual rights, they are preconditions for fruitful debate and for the pursuit of a shared understanding of the world and of one another. The institution of Speakers' Corner, though not perhaps a particularly effective forum for real debate, continues to epitomize the commitment to the free expression of views however eccentric they may be.

Genuine freedom of speech requires an openness to debate and criticism which some may find offensive. A particular and controversial case in point is the importance of open debate about religious beliefs. Some people may find any criticism of their God and their cherished religious beliefs and traditions offensive. People's sensitivities should be respected, but not to the point of silencing debate. Mutual criticism between people with differing fundamental beliefs should be carried on in a way which is not gratuitously offensive. It also goes without saying that criticism of particular religious groups must not be used as a covert means of stirring up inter-communal conflict and hatred. The value of tolerance, the willingness of people with different religious and non-religious beliefs to live in harmony, to accept their differences and to respect one another's right to hold their own beliefs, is vital. But tolerance should not mean treating certain views as off-limits, immune to criticism. To do so would be to lapse into a view of our society as no more than a collection of separate communities with no common life.

Cooperation as a participatory value has implications not only for our shared way of life but also for our personal ideals which encapsulate our vision of a flourishing life. Foremost among these is the value of personal autonomy, the capacity of individuals to be the shapers of their lives and to make their own choices about the most important features of their lives. This is not only an individualistic ideal, but recognition of the importance of developing each individual's ability to make an active contribution to the shared life. It should be the guiding principle of an education which stimulates pupils to think for themselves, to challenge received ideas, to share actively and creatively in the arts and cultural activities, and to cooperate in making sense of the world.

The idea of conversation also has a direct practical application to education. We have in mind the increasing use of "community of enquiry" programmes in schools, to encourage children to reflect collectively, openly and critically on the big questions of life, from quite a young age. Such methods help children to make sense of their shared experience and thus to foster a sense of community and belonging.

The values which we have identified, all stemming in one way or another from the value of cooperation, are rooted in shared practices and institutions. They are not just abstract principles, and they do not depend on any creed or formal system of beliefs. There have been those who will claim that a British statement of values should foreground the tradition of the Christian religion as its essential underpinning. To do so, however, would militate against the genuine sharing of those values in a pluralistic society which includes people of all religions and of non-religious beliefs.

We are submitting this paper as a group of humanist philosophers, but the values we have identified are not exclusively humanist values. They are first and foremost human values. The values of cooperation, openness and inclusiveness ought to be manifested in any human society because they derive from the shared needs of human beings as social beings. Of course these general values are exemplified in different ways in different societies. They are made real in people's lives insofar as they are transmitted through particular social traditions and institutions, but no tradition or institution can claim an exclusive or dominant importance in this regard. It is essential that the values of our society should be shared values.

This is why we have, in this paper, sought to identify values rooted in institutions and ways of life which are genuinely shared. To say that they are shared is not to deny that these values are all too often violated or neglected. There are plenty of instances in our society of failures of cooperation, of intolerance and divisiveness, oppression and injustice. To that extent the values we have identified are values which people ought to live by, but not necessarily values which people always do live by. However, they are values which most people can readily acknowledge. They are values which already have a living presence in this society and should continue to do so.

Main Grouping of Christianity

The four primary divisions of Christianity are Roman Catholicism, the Orthodox church, Anglican, and Protestantism. There are other Christian groups that do not fit neatly into one of these primary categories. The Nicene Creed is "accepted as authoritative by the Roman Catholic, Eastern Orthodox, Anglican, and major Protestant churches." There is a diversity of doctrines and practices among groups calling themselves Christian. These groups are sometimes classified under denominations, though for theological reasons many groups reject this classification system. Another distinction that is sometimes drawn is between Eastern Christianity and Western Christianity.

Catholic Church

The Catholic Church comprises those particular churches, headed by bishops, in communion with the Pope, the Bishop of Rome, as its highest authority in matters of faith, morality and Church governance. Like the Eastern Orthodox, the Roman Catholic Church through Apostolic succession traces its origins to the Christian community founded by Jesus Christ. Catholics maintain that the "one, holy, catholic and apostolic church" founded by Jesus subsists fully in the Roman Catholic Church, but also acknowledges other Christian churches and communities. and works towards reconciliation among all Christians. The Catholic faith is detailed in the *Catechism of the Catholic Church.*

The 2,782 sees are grouped into 23 particular rites, the largest being the Latin Rite, each with distinct traditions regarding the liturgy and the administering the sacraments. With more than 1.1 billion baptized members, the Catholic Church is the largest church representing over half of all Christians and

one sixth of the world's population.

Various smaller communities, such as the Old Catholic, Heenum Catholic and Independent Catholic Churches, include the word *Catholic* in their title, and share much in common with Roman Catholicism but are no longer in communion with the See of Rome. The Old Catholic Church is in communion with the Anglican Communion.

Orthodox Churches

Eastern Orthodoxy comprises those churches in communion with the Patriarchal Sees of the East, such as the Ecumenical Patriarch of Constantinople. Like the Roman Catholic Church, the Eastern Orthodox Church also traces its heritage to the foundation of Christianity through Apostolic succession and has an episcopal structure, though the autonomy of the individual, mostly national churches is emphasized. A number of conflicts with Western Christianity over questions of doctrine and authority culminated in the Great Schism. Eastern Orthodoxy is the second largest single denomination in Christianity, with over 200 million adherents.

The Oriental Orthodox Churches (also called *Old Oriental Churches*) are those eastern churches that recognize the first three ecumenical councils-Nicaea, Constantinople and Ephesus-but reject the dogmatic definitions of the Council of Chalcedon and instead espouse a Miaphysite christology. The Oriental Orthodox communion comprises six groups: Syriac Orthodox, Coptic Orthodox, Ethiopian Orthodox, Eritrean Orthodox, Malankara Orthodox Syrian Church (India) and Armenian Apostolic churches. These six churches, while being in communion with each other are completely independent hierarchically. These churches are generally not in communion with Eastern Orthodox Churches with whom they are in dialogue for a return to unity.

Protestantism

In the 16th century, Martin Luther, Huldrych Zwingli, and John Calvin inaugurated what has come to be called Protestantism. Luther's primary theological heirs are known as Lutherans. Zwingli and Calvin's heirs are far broader denominationally, and are broadly referred to as the Reformed Tradition. Most Protestant traditions branch out from the Reformed tradition in some way. In addition to the Lutheran and Reformed branches of the Reformation, there is Anglicanism after the English Reformation. The Anabaptist tradition was largely ostracized by the other Protestant parties at the time, but has achieved a measure of affirmation in more recent history. Some but not most Baptists prefer not to be called Protestants, claiming a direct ancestral line going back to the apostles in the first century.

The oldest Protestant groups separated from the Catholic Church in the 16th century Protestant Reformation, followed in many cases by further divisions. For example, the Methodist Church grew out of Anglican minister John Wesley's evangelical and revival movement in the Anglican Church. Several Pentecostal and non-denominational Churches, which emphasize the cleansing power of the Holy Spirit, in turn grew out of the Methodist Church. Because Methodists, Pentecostals, and other evangelicals stress "accepting Jesus as your personal Lord and Savior", which comes from John Wesley's emphasis of the New Birth, they often refer to themselves as being born-again. Estimates of the total number of Protestants are very uncertain, partly because of the difficulty in determining which denominations should be placed in these categories, but it seems clear that Protestantism is the second largest major group of Christians after Catholicism in number of followers (although the Orthodox Church is larger than any single Protestant denomination).

A special grouping is the Anglican churches descended from the Church of England and organized in the Anglican Communion. Some Anglican churches consider themselves both Protestant and Catholic. Some Anglicans consider their church a " alongside of the Roman Catholic and Eastern Orthodox Churches, a concept rejected by the Roman Catholic Church and some Eastern Orthodox.

Some groups of individuals who hold basic Protestant tenants identify themselves simply as " Christians" or "born-again Christians". They typically distance themselves from the confessionalism and/or creedalism of other Christian communities by calling themselves "non-denominational." Often founded by individual pastors, they have little affiliation with historic denominations.

Other

The Second Great Awakening, a period of religious revival that occurred in the U.S. during the early 1800s, saw the development of a number of unrelated churches. They generally saw themselves as restoring the original church of Jesus Christ rather than reforming one of the existing churches. A common belief held by Restorationists was that the other divisions of Christianity had introduced doctrinal defects into Christianity, which was known as the Great Apostasy.

Some of the churches originating during this period are historically connected to early-19th century camp meetings in the Midwest and Upstate New York. American Millennialism and Adventism, which arose from Evangelical Protestantism, influenced the Jehovah's Witnesses movement (with 7 million members), and, as a reaction specifically to William Miller, the Seventh-day Adventists. Others, including the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ), Evangelical Christian Church in Canada, Churches of Christ, and the Independent Christian Churches/Churches of Christ, have their roots in the contemporaneous Stone-Campbell Restoration Movement, which was centered in Kentucky and Tennessee. Other groups originating in this time period include the Christadelphians and The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, the largest denomination of the Latter Day Saint movement with over 13 million members. While the churches originating in the Second Great Awakening have some superficial similarities, their doctrine and practices vary significantly.

Further Reading

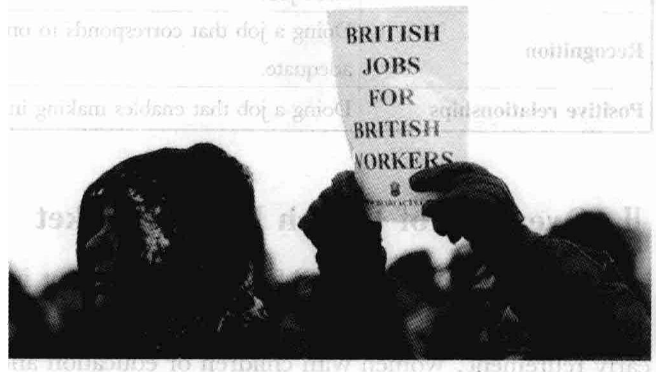
1. Daniel Hamm. *Christianity: An Outline of Salvation and the Christian Life.* Createspace, 2008.
2. *Christianity: An Introduction. Alister E. McGrath.* Wiley-Blackwell, 2006.

Useful Websites

1. www.allaboutreligion.org
2. www.religionfacts.com

Chapter 17
Work

导 读
Introduction



随着英国的产业结构从传统制造业到金融服务业调整，近些年来，英国的就业模式也在发生着变革。就业及工作时间呈现出更加灵活的趋势，以满足多样化的工作人群的需求。2009年英国总就业人数为2 890万，失业率达到7.8%。面对失业问题英国推出了一系列措施试图降低失业率。18世纪中叶工会在英国产生并合法化，工会组织在英国经历了蓬勃的发展，工会通过内部协调，互相帮助，集体谈判和罢工等形式解决工人内部矛盾以及和雇主斗争，维护工人的利益，改善工人的工作、生活条件，并在国家政治生活中发挥作用。英国通过一系列的平等就业条例，给予不同性别，年龄以及宗教的人以平等就业权利。本章将从这几个方面讲述英国的工作状况。

The meaning of work varies from person to person, but it goes undeniable that a meaningful work helps make a fully-accomplished life. This chapter briefly looks at the work-related issues in the UK, covering an overview of UK labor market, the status of unemployment and its relevant benefits and supports, the functions and working mode of the renowned British trade unions as well as equalities in employment for the female, the aged and those with a religious belief. We will begin by taking a discussion of the meaning of work.

I. The Meaning of Work

The meaning of work in a broad sense covers an immense scope of people's life. Students "work" hard to improve their grades; artists "work" in front of their works to create masterpieces; some housewives never worked seriously for pays but are willing to work day and night with domestic house "work". In *Advice to a Young Man*, Robert Jones Burdette wrote that "whether you handle a pick or a pen, a wheel-barrow or a set of books, you must work" because "the work gives you an appetite for your meals, lends solidity to your slumbers, and gives you a perfect and grateful appreciation of a holiday". It is true that a majority of people treat work as a paid employment, but it is also the case that people work for more satisfactions.

Characteristics of a meaningful work

Job Characteristic	Definition
Social purpose	Doing something that is useful to others or to society and that contributes to society.
Moral correctness	Doing a job that is morally justifiable in terms of its processes and its results.
Achievement-related pleasure	Enjoying one's job, doing a job that stimulates the development of one's potential and that enables achieving one's goals.
Autonomy	Being able to use one's skills and judgment to solve problems and make decisions regarding one's job.
Recognition	Doing a job that corresponds to one's skills, whose results are recognized and whose salary is adequate.
Positive relationships	Doing a job that enables making interesting contacts and good relationships with others.

Ⅱ. Overview of British Labor Market

The total number of workforce in employment in the UK is about 28.9 million in December 2009. There are also 8.08 million working age people who currently stay economically inactive for reasons of early retirement, women with children or education and training.

Employment by Occupation and Industries in the UK

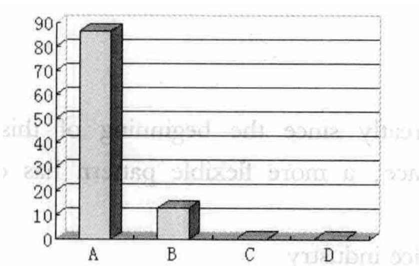
According to the latest *Standard Industrial Classification* (*SIC*), industries in the UK mainly fall into seventeen sections by the type of economic activity people get engaged in.

Standard Industrial Classification (**SIC**)

- Section A Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry
- Section B Fishing
- Section C Mining and Quarrying
- Section D Manufacturing
- Section E Electricity, Gas and Water Supply
- Section F Construction
- Section G Wholesale and Retail Trade; Repair of Motor Vehicles, Motorcycles and Personal and Household Goods
- Section H Hotels and Restaurants
- Section I Transport, Storage and Communication
- Section J Financial Intermediation
- Section K Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities
- Section L Public Administration and Defense; Compulsory Social Security
- Section M Education
- Section N Health and Social Work
- Section O Other Community, Social and Personal Service Activities
- Section P Private Households Employing Staff and Undifferentiated Production Activities of Households for Own Use
- Section Q Extra-territorial Organization and Bodies

In Britain, almost half of the entire working population are engaged in the several large industries of public administration (L), wholesale & retail trade (G) and hotels & restaurants (H), whereas the number of people working in energy (E), agriculture (A) and fishing (B) are the lowest, only accounting for about 1 percent of the total in employment. As for the gender distribution, considerably more women than men are working in public administration, education and health.

Labor Force Survey, November 2008 to January 2009



A: Employees (86.4 %)
B: Self employed (13.0 %)
C: Unpaid family workers (0.3 %)
D: Government supported trainees (0.3 %)

Another categorization classifies employed people into four major groups. The employees are those who work for a company and have their National Insurance paid for directly from their wages. The self-employed work for themselves and generally pay their National Insurance themselves. Unpaid family workers are people who do unpaid work for a business they own or for a business a relative owns. Government-supported trainees are all people aged 16 and over who take part in one of the government's employment and training programs.

The *Standard Occupational Classification* places workers further into various industries on the basis of the presupposed occupations (in the table below) they are employed in. Each group actually contains larger ranges of sub-groups. Take professional occupations for instance. It is composed of people from different professions in science and technology, health, teaching and research, business and public service, whereas a child minder or an educational assistant both belong to the personal service occupations.

Employment by Status and Occupation in UK

ALL	Total in	Employees '000			Self-employed '000		
Standard Occupational Classification	employment[1] '000	Full-time	Part-time	Total	Full-time	Part-time	Total
Total	28,166	18,032	6,346	24,383	2,750	812	3,566
1 Managers and senior officials	4,161	3,248	261	3,508	532	105	637
2 Professional occupations	3,539	2,610	454	3,065	326	140	467
3 Associate professional and technical	3,913	2,730	623	3,354	371	169	542
4 Administrative and secretarial	3,537	2,229	1,155	3,384	39	74	113
5 Skilled trades occupations	3,203	1,952	152	2,104	966	99	1,066
6 Sales and customer service	2,227	893	1,241	2,135	43	36	79
7 Process plant and machine 0peratives	2,116	1,671	159	1,831	238	42	280
8 Elementary occupations	3,225	1,592	1,417	3,009	125	65	190

Note: 1 also includes unpaid family workers and persons on government-supported training and employment programs.

As the table shows, the workforce in employment is on the whole evenly spread across all the different groups of occupations in the UK. Moreover an official statistics demonstrates that of all the occupation groups, sales and customer service occupations have the largest number of young people in employment, while the professional occupations have the largest well-educated proportions of people with degrees or qualifications. Compared with the number of men working in the professional occupations, a greater proportion of women have a degree or equivalent qualifications.

III. Changing Patterns of Work in the UK

Working patterns in Britain have been changing greatly since the beginning of this century. Compared with the traditional work mode in the workplace, a more flexible pattern has come into popularity, driven by the changes in the UK labor market:

- the shift from the manufacturing to the financial service industry
- the growth in part-time employment
- the rising prominence of women within the workforce
- a gradual ageing of the labor force
- the growing importance of temporary and self-employment
- the adoption of a variety of flexible working practices

In response to the changes, a revolution in the patterns of working time is taking place. Flexible working hours are extensively called for, which actually can be achieved through part-time working or multiple jobs, flexitime, and overtime. The government is also helping in the establishment of a flexible individualized working. The Employment Act in 2003 introduced the right for parents of young and disabled children to apply to work a flexible working arrangement.

Besides the flexible working time, the place where workers carry out the work is becoming diverse as well. Instead of crowding into the same small office blocks, more people are now working from their individual households. The scale of net working and telephone working is also spreading across the UK.

The statistics from an official survey shows that from the year 1998 onto 2004, the proportion of home working people has risen from 16 per cent to 28 per cent, highlighting the fact that 'people have more choice and control over their working lives,' as noted by UK Employment Minister. Moreover 83 per cent of the workplaces now take part-time employees in 2004, a moderate rise from 79 per cent in 1998, resulting from more women with children getting engaged in part-time works.

Working Time and Earnings

The Working Time Regulations 1998 states that

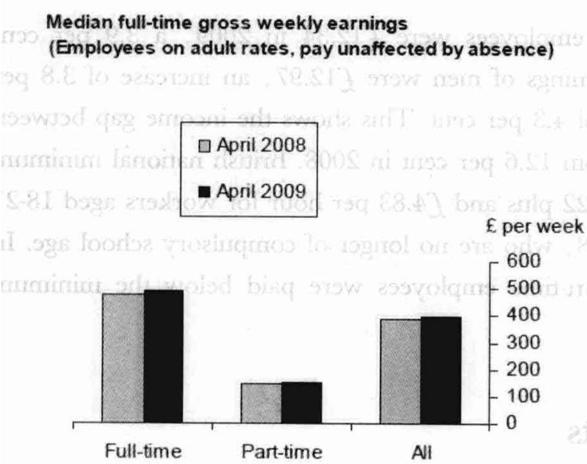
- A worker's working time, including overtime, in any reference period which is applicable in his case shall not exceed an average of 48 hours for each seven days.
- A night worker's normal hours of work in any reference period which is applicable in his case shall not exceed an average of eight hours for each 24 hours.

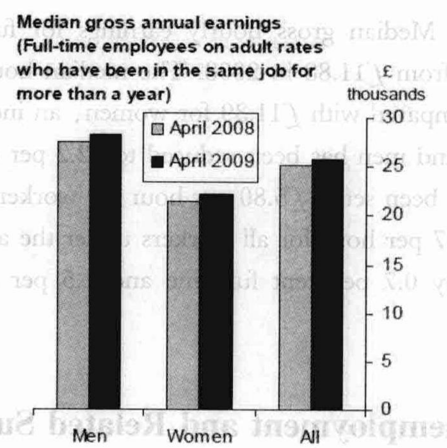
In addition, the regulations also stipulated that employees are entitled to both a twenty days paid holiday and to the controls on rest and break periods, though workers still have the option to work longer if they wish. In fact, the actual weekly hours of work go far beyond 24 hours for most people and

on average people worked about 35 to 40 hours per week. Men are likely to overwork than women. Approximately 27.5 per cent of all men in employment worked over 45 hours a week, compared with 19% for women who worked over 45 hours per week in 2009.

Full-time employees' pay and paid hours, United Kingdom

	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009
Median gross annual earnings (£)	N/A	18,848	21,124	23,554	25,816
Percentage annual increase		5.9	3.7	2.9	2.6
Median gross weekly earnings (£)	320.5	359	404	446.4	488.7
Percentage annual increase		3.9	3.3	3.5	2
Median gross hourly earnings (£)	7.92	8.91	10.07	11.2	12.43
Percentage annual increase		3.6	3.4	4	3.8
Median total weekly paid hours	37.9	37.5	37.3	37.5	37.5
Percentage annual increase		–0.9	–0.5	0	0





The median gross annual earnings for full-time employees in Britain were £25,800, an increase of 2.6 per cent from 2008 (£25,200). The median gross annual earnings for men were £28,300, and for women were £22,200. In 2000 the annual income was only £18,848 per year, but men earned over £5,000 more than women did. The annual earnings were higher for the employees from the public sector (£27,686) than those from the private sector (£24,970). The top pay positions include managers, senior officers, and people from the professional occupations, whereas the lowest-paid employees are mainly found in the sales, customer and private service occupations. Regionally the level of earnings in England was highest, about £1,000 above the average in 2009. Wales had the lowest level of salary at £22,799 a year, with Scotland and Northern Ireland in between, respectively £24,991 for the former and £23,152 for the latter.

Median gross weekly earnings for full-time employees were £489, up 2.0 per cent from £479 in 2008. Median gross weekly earnings for all employees were £488.7 in 2009, ranging from a wage of 1,182£ in the extraction of oil and gas industry to the lowest wage of 295£ in the food and beverage services. Taking age factors into account, the highest level of average wage belongs to people in their forties (550£ per week), followed closely by the 30-39 age group (541£).

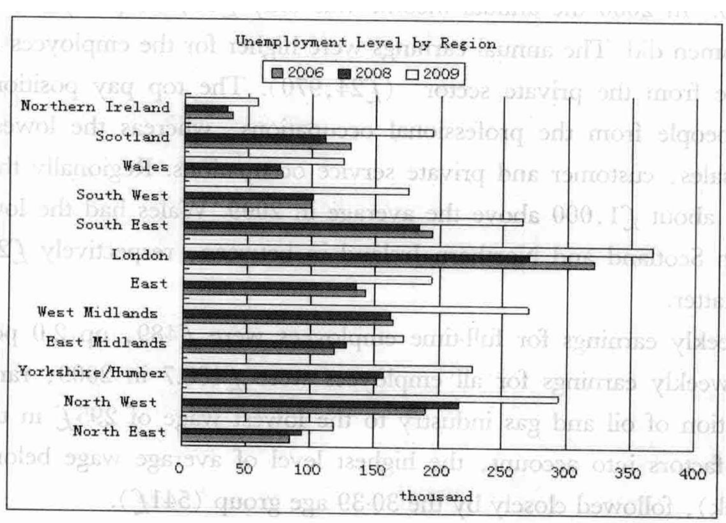
Highest and lowest paid industries, United Kingdom, 2009

Highest paid		gross weekly pay(£)	Lowest paid	Gross weekly pay(£)
1	Extraction of crude petroleum and natural gas	1,182.9	Food and beverage service activities	295.7
2	Manufacture of coke and refined petroleum products	928.0	Accommodation	302.4
3	Mining of coal and lignite	832.4	Manufacture of wearing apparel	334.9
4	Computer programming, consultancy and related activities	713.7	Retail trade, except of motor vehicles	337.5
5	Programming and broadcasting activities	708.7	Other personal service activities	343.6
6	Mining support service activities	687.6	Residential care activities	345.4
7	Manufacture of tobacco products	670.7	employers of domestic personnel	347.9
8	Information service activities	669.1	Employment activities	356.5
9	Scientific research and development	659.4	Manufacture of textiles	359.1
10	Activities of head offices; management consultancy activities	649.4	Gambling and betting activities	362.0

The Median gross hourly earnings for full-time employees were £12.34 in 2009, a 3.9 per cent increase from £11.88 in 2008. The median hourly earnings of men were £12.97, an increase of 3.8 per cent, compared with £11.39 for women, an increase of 4.3 per cent. This shows the income gap between women and men has been reduced to 12.2 per cent from 12.6 per cent in 2008. British national minimum wage has been set at £5.80 per hour for workers aged 22 plus and £4.83 per hour for workers aged 18-21 and £3.57 per hour for all workers under the age of 18, who are no longer of compulsory school age. In 2009 only 0.7 per cent full-time and 1.5 per cent part-time employees were paid below the minimum standard.

IV. Unemployment and Related Supports

The employment rate in 2009 was 72.4 per cent and currently about 28.9 million people were engaged in either a full-time (21.22 million) or a part-time (7.69 million) employment. The employment rate for men was 75.3 per cent and 69.2 per cent for women.



The unemployment rate currently stands at 7.8 per cent and the number of unemployed people reached 2.46 million by December 2009. The number of unemployed men was 1.50 million and unemployed women 959 thousand. Unemployment levels and rates also vary either across regions or within regions. The chart above shows the unemployment level and rate for different regions in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland in respectively 2006, 2008 and 2009. It reflects the proportion of the economically active population who are unemployed.

Job Seeker' Allowance

Those over 18 years and under retirement age in the UK are eligible to receive a government-paid financial support called a job seeker's allowance, if they are out of work and are actively seeking work. However, the allowance is reduced if a person has savings over £6,000 and those having more than £16,000 are excluded from receiving the allowance. To get the allowance, the claimants usually begin by applying for the benefits in the jobcentres and sign a job seeker's agreement with the Employment Service, specifying their availability for work, the kind of work they are seeking, what they will do to find employment. The agreement also states the services to be provided by the Employment Service. Generally the eligible claimants could receive the Jobseeker's Allowance after a 3-day waiting period. Claimants are also required to visit regularly their local Jobcentres and keep a journal of their efforts to find work.



There are two forms of job seeker's allowance, contribution-based and income-based. Contribution-based job seeker's allowance is paid to people who have earned above the national lowest wages and hence have paid sufficient National Insurance (NI) contributions. This allowance can only be claimed for 182 days and claimants will then be transferred to income-based allowance until his income becomes more than the applicable amount.

Contribution-based Job Seeker's Allowance Rates

Personal allowances	2008/2009	2009/2010
under 18	47.95	50.95
18 to 24	47.95	50.95
25 or over	60.5	64.3

Income Support

Income Support is available to those who are not working or who are on a very low income. It is normally claimed by the lone parents, the long and short-term sick people with disabilities and other special groups. It can also be given to people who are on maternity or paternal leave and income support would give them more income than Statutory Sick Pay. Claimants could continue receiving income support as long as their income is less than the applicable amount.

It is the Jobcentres and the local Department for Work and Pensions office that will ultimately decide

Income-Based Job Seeker's Allowance Rates

Personal allowances	2008/2009	2009/2010
Single Person		
aged under 18	47.95	50.95
aged 18 to 24	47.95	50.95
aged 25 or over	60.5	64.3
Lone Parent		
aged under 18	47.95	50.95
aged 18 or over	60.5	64.3
Couple		
both aged under 18	47.95	50.95
one aged under 18, one aged 18 to 24	47.95	50.95
one aged under 18, one aged 25 or over	60.5	64.3
both aged under 18, with responsibility for a child	72.35	76.9
both aged 18 or over	94.95	100.95
Dependent children	52.59	56.11

whether job seeker's allowance or income support would be given to an individual applicant. Besides these benefits the unemployed people and those on low incomes are also eligible to other supports including, for instance, rebating of council tax, housing benefit, exemption from health service charges, legal aid, free school meals, reduced charges for adult education.

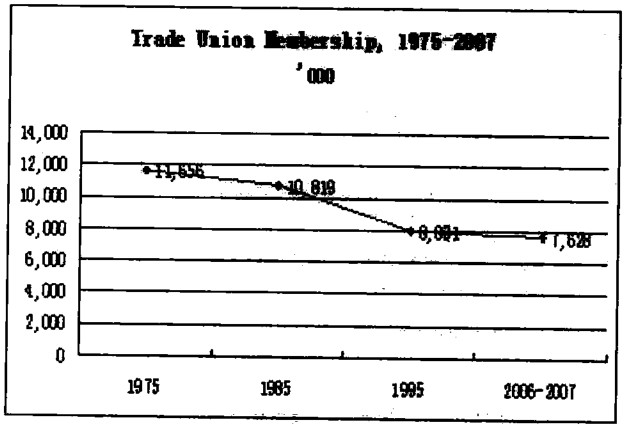
V. Trade Unions

Trade Union is a membership-based organization made up of mainly groups of workers and is particularly concerned with pay, working conditions, and job security. The world's first workers' organizations and the first legal trade unions in the modern sense were said to be born in the United Kingdom in the industrial revolution in late eighteenth century, when a majority of workers were suffering extreme hardship. When joined together as a union, workers became more powerful when negotiating with the employers. They employed the means of collective bargaining to seek self-protection and to safeguard their interests in the workplace. In its early days trade unions often absorbed skilled workers within the same industry. It was not until the late nineteenth century that the non-skilled workers began to emerge in large scale to participate in trade unions. After World War II, the British national trade union organizations gradually transformed into its modern shape, consisting of four main types:

- General unions are for skilled and unskilled workers performing different roles.
- Craft unions are for those performing a specific type of work and sharing a particular skill, for example electricians or printers.
- Industrial unions represent workers in one particular industry or sector regardless of what their skills are, for example steel or car workers.
- White-collar unions are for the non-manual workers, for example the people in clerical and

administrative jobs.

Since the late twentieth century the British trade unions have undergone a severe decline in the size of its membership. Back to the 1980s, the members of the trade unions accounted for about 80 per cent of the entire work force. In 1997 the number dropped to 30 per cent of all in employment and it further fell to 24.9 per cent in 2008. Female union density has experienced growth over the years. And for a continuity of the past seven years up to 2008, overall union density has been higher for females than male workers. By region Wales had the highest union density and the rate was lowest in England. The North East has the highest union density and the South East had the lowest.

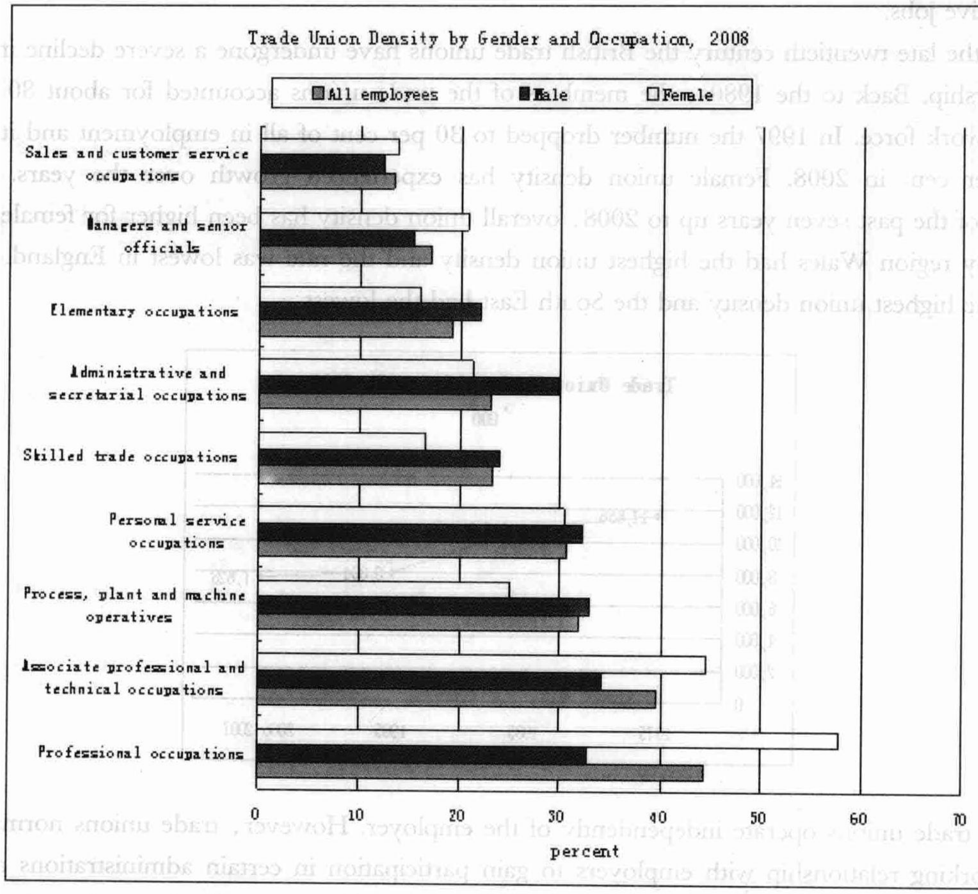


Most trade unions operate independently of the employer. However, trade unions normally develop a close working relationship with employers to gain participation in certain administrations and decision makings concerned with the interests of employees. Union members normally elect a shop steward at their work place to represent them and their concerns as a link to the management. The main activities of the trade unions include:

- Negotiating agreements with employers on pay and conditions.
- Discussing major changes to the workplace and the members' concerns with employers.
- Providing their members with legal and financial advice plus education facilities and certain consumer benefits such as discounted insurance.

Normally when any difference or dispute arises, the unions will first negotiate with employers hopefully to reach an agreement. However, if the case does not go settled, both parties may invite an independent third party, for instance, the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service (Acas) in the UK, to resolve or arbitrate the dispute. Otherwise, trade union members may decide to go on strikes. The Acas is an independent body, though maintained chiefly by the Department for Business Innovation and Skills. It was set up in 1968 to help with employment relations by giving independent advice, offering training and solving problems in employment to improve performance.

A vast majority of unions have been affiliated to a larger organization, the Trades Union Congress (TUC) for example, that helps negotiate the benefits and interests of its member unions with the government. TUC was founded in 1968 and now it represents fifty eight large unions involving nearly six and a half million people. There also exist other employer associations representing the trade unions of specialist staff and employees of a particular organization outside the TUC.



VI. Equal Opportunities at Work

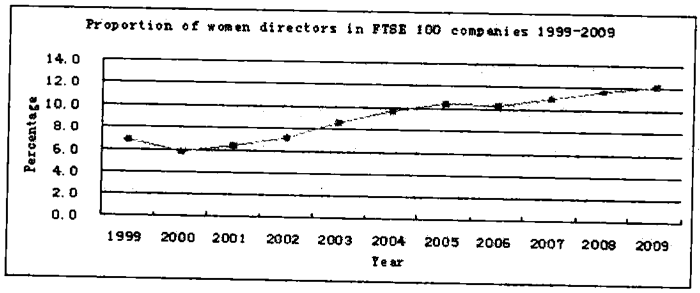
In 2005 the Department of Work and Pensions forecast that by 2010 only 20 per cent of the workforce in Britain will be white, able-bodied men under forty five years old. The labor market is growing more diverse than in the past. In recent years more women than men have entered the labor force and among them some are taking up managerial and senior positions in business and public services. Besides, the number of aged workers has increased in the labor force. There are now 1.5 million more people aged fifty to sixty five in the employment market than a decade ago. After the introduction of a series of the Employment Equality Regulations, such characteristics become protected in employment by Equality Act: disability; gender; marriage and civil partnership; pregnancy and maternity; race; religion or belief; sex; sexual orientation.

Women at Work

In Britain the Equal Pay Act was introduced in the 1970s as part of the equal opportunities legislation to give women lawfully the equal status as men in terms of pay. Then the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 outlawed both direct and indirect discrimination and harassment because of sex and marital status in employment and other areas. The official statistics indicates that the gender pay gap has been on the fall since 1997, but significant gap still exists. The latest figure shows that 'for every pound earned by a man per hour in the UK, a woman earns 87 pence'.

- Only 19.6 per cent of Partners in the top 100 UK law firms are women.
- Only 10.5 per cent of Chief Executives of media companies are women.
- Only 13.3 per cent of Chief Executives of national sports bodies are women.
- Only 13.6 per cent of Editors of national newspapers are women; and.
- Only 17.4 per cent of Directors of major museums and art galleries are women.

(Source: Factsheet from Government Equalities Office, UK)



Religion and Belief

In 2003, the Employment Equality (religion and belief) Regulations made it unlawful to directly or indirectly discriminate people on the ground of religion and belief. The regulations intend to give people with religious belief equal chances in almost every facet in work, covering recruitment, terms and conditions, promotions, dismissals and trainings.

> Regulation in practice:
>
> "Example 1: At interview it becomes apparent that a job applicant is Hindu. Although the applicant has all the skills and competences required of the job, the organization decides not to offer him the job because he is a Hindu. This is direct discrimination.
>
> "Example 2: Disliking the baseball caps his delivery drivers like to wear, a Chief Executive applies a 'no headwear' policy to all his staff. The policy, although applied to all employees, disadvantages his Sikh staff who wears turbans for religious reasons. This policy is indirect discrimination."

Findings from an official statistics show that in Great Britain Jews and Hindus account for the largest population working in managerial or professional occupations in 2004, and about one in twenty Hindu men was a medical practitioner compared with one in two hundred Christian men, whereas the Muslim and Sikh men are the least found in managerial or professional occupations. In 2004, nearly one in ten Muslim men was a driver, much higher than the proportion in any other group. Christian men are found to be more likely to take skilled trade jobs.

Age at Work

In 2006 Age Regulations was introduced in Great Britain to protect people from being treated unfairly on the ground of age, including young, old and those in between. The regulations require that people be given equal opportunities in job application, rewards and training regardless of age. This also gives older workers the same rights to claim an unfair dismissal or receive a redundancy payment as younger

workers. When an old worker is about to reach his intended retirement age, employers need to give a six to twelve months notice about their retirement date and notify them of their entitlement to requesting working on beyond the age.

The default retirement age in UK is currently sixty five for men and sixty for women (rising to sixty five by 2020). Though the age limit is likely to be removed eventually in view of the ageing population and an increased willingness to work among older people, it is still under debate. A survey shows that a majority of workers are supportive of the change. However, it is also found that people prefer to continue working on a part-time basis or with greater flexibility.

Following the Equality Act 2006, a single Commission for Equality and Human Rights was established in Great Britain to replace the three former commissions: Equal Opportunities Commission, the Commission for Racial Equality, and the Disability Rights Commission. The new commission is responsible generally for the promoting of equality and human rights across age, disability, gender, race, religion and belief, sexual orientation and gender reassignment. The Equality and Human Rights Commission has also been established to help enforce anti-discrimination rules and provide advice and guidance so as to finally raise awareness of equalities and human rights in Britain.

Glossary

labor market 劳动力市场
wheel-barrow 手推车
quarrying 采石
occupation 职业
workforce 劳动力,劳动人口
self-employment 自主经营
secretarial 文秘
ageing 老龄化
median 中间值
gross annual earnings 全年总收入
claimant 申请人
maternity 产假
Statutory Sick Pay 法定病假工资
council tax 市政税
Trade Union 工会
clerical 行政的
Shop steward 工人代表
conciliation 和解
arbitrate 仲裁
affiliate 加入
forecast 预测
harassment 骚扰
working mode 工作模式
real estate 房地产
intermediation 仲裁
wage 薪水
manufacturing 制造业,工业
child minder 儿童照顾者
prominence 突出
flexitim 弹性上班时间制
overtime 超时工作
Job Seeker' Allowance 求职津贴
Income Support 收入补助
paternity leave 陪产假
rebate 退税
exemption 免税
collective bargaining 劳资谈判
Union density 工会密度
discount 折扣
resolve 解决
innovation 创新
pension 退休金
orientation 方向
discriminate 歧视

Hindu 印度教
dismissal 解雇
Sikh 锡克教
redundancy 裁员

Cultural Notes

1. **National insurance number** abbreviated as NI number. All prospective workers and students with the hope to get employed in the UK must apply for an NI number. This number could show an individual's contributions to the national insurance fund. It is also used as a reference number to the social security system in the UK. NI number is made up of two letters, six digits and an optional letter at the end.
2. **Flexitime** is a flexible work schedule for the employees to arrange their own work time on the condition that they could meet the required total working hours. It is a contrast to the traditional work arrangement, under which the employees have to work a standard 9am-5pm a day. Flexitime gives more people more choice and control over their working lives.
3. **Gross annual earnings** (or gross annual income) is the total amount of a person's income for a particular year representing everything he made before he pays any tax or takes any deductions. In Britain, income tax is theoretically paid by all those in employment on the basis of income, such as employment income, pension income, savings and investment income etc.
4. **Maternity and paternity leave** maternity leave is the time that a mother takes off work to give birth to and take care of a baby. In UK the statutory maternity leave is for 52 weeks and 39 weeks paid. Paternity leave is the time a father takes off work with pay to support the mother or child carer for the new born baby at the birth or adoption of a child. It is usually shorter.
5. **Council tax** is a local taxation on the domestic properties that helps pay for local services like policing and rubbish collection. The basis for the tax is the property value. Each property in UK is allocated to one of the eight valuation bands. One could apply for a tax discount or exemption on the condition that the property is empty or he is single, disabled or a student. The Council Tax is a main source of revenue income of local authorities in the UK.
6. **Collective bargaining** is a type of negotiation used by the employees to work with their employers. In a collective bargaining the representatives of worker's union meet, discuss and negotiate with the employer upon work issues to reach a contract the both sides could agree with. It usually involves such issues as wages, working hours and employment conditions, work benefits and rules.
7. **Shop steward** is the representative of workers in the trade union, elected voluntarily by his fellow workers or in some cases appointed by officials of higher ranks while still maintaining the role of a worker in the workplace. The duties of a shop steward include: representing his fellows in solving disputes; informing the on-going business in the union; educating workers to understand their rights, contracts and important issues; and organizing and mobilizing workers.

Questions for Discussion

1. What are the latest changes in the UK labor market? What difference have these changes made in the

working patterns?

2. What benefits could a worker receive when s/he gets out of work in the UK?
3. Please describe the major functions and activities of Trade Unions in the UK. What are the four main types of trade unions?
4. What aspects and groups of people does employment equality cover? How is equality observed at work in the UK? Relate this to the status of the women, the aged and those people with a religious background.
5. The table below lists ten hot jobs in 2006 and 2007 in the UK. Study the table carefully and then work in a group to find out:
   (1) What are the most difficult filled positions in both years in the UK?
   (2) What is the situation in China? Discuss the similarities and differences between the situation in China and Britain.

2007 Hot Jobs	2006 Hot Jobs
1. Skilled Manual Trades	1. Sales Representatives
2. Administrative Assistants & PAs	2. Administrative Assistants & PAs
3. Engineers	3. Skilled Manual Trades
4. Sales Representatives	4. Engineers
5. Management/Executives	5. Drivers
6. Laborers	6. Chefs/Cooks
7. Accounting & Finance staff	7. Restaurants & Hotel Staff
8. Chefs/cooks	8. Accounting & Finance Staff
9. Machinists	9. Cleaner/Cleaning & Domestic Staff
10. Supervisors	10. Management/Executives

6. The figures below show the employment outcomes of full-time first degree qualifiers from 2003 to 2008. Work on the information given and summarize the trends of the varied outcomes over the years. Which type of outcome demonstrates the most striking change, i.e. having the greatest increase and decrease? What reasons could you think of to account for the change?

	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08
Employment	62.7%	62.8%	62.9%	63.0%	61.3%
Employment and further study	8.1%	8.2%	8.4%	8.6%	7.4%
Further study only	15.0%	14.9%	14.8%	14.8%	15.0%
Assumed to be unemployed	6.4%	6.5%	6.3%	5.7%	8.2%
Not available for employment	5.0%	4.9%	4.6%	4.3%	4.1%
Other	1.0%	1.1%	1.1%	1.1%	1.2%
Question not answered					

Supplementary Reading

1. Case Studies

(a) Flexible working arrangements rejected

Before Marie Drysdale, 31, started her maternity leave when she was pregnant with her first child, she was sure that she would go back to work full time after her six months break.

However, once Marie had her baby, she felt unsure about returning to work full time. She explains, "I always thought that I would be a little bored at home with a baby because I've always been really ambitious and driven in my career. But as the time I was due to go back to work was getting nearer, I just knew that I didn't want to leave my little baby with a childminder. I couldn't afford to give up work and I didn't want to stop work completely either, so I was in a bit of a dilemma."

As Marie's husband has a relatively well-paid job in advertising, the family were able to consider the financial impact of Marie reducing her hours instead of returning to work full time. She continues, "We worked out the costs of our outgoings, including the mortgage, bills, entertainment...all the places our money goes! We knew that we could afford for me to go part time and my husband agreed that it would be good for our little family."

Marie went back to work full time at the end of her maternity leave because she wanted to make sure that she was sure about the potential changes, but even after the first week, she was certain that part time work would be better for her and her new baby. "I just didn't feel right. I wanted to be looking after my baby. Even though we had found an excellent childminder, I just felt uncomfortable with going back to work."

Researching Flexible Working Rights

Marie researched her working rights regarding requesting flexible working from her employers - a major transport organization - and was pleased to note that she was legally entitled to request flexible working.

She made an appointment with her HR director in the first instance, with her request prepared properly in writing, in accordance with the guidelines she had researched. Marie told us, "I wanted to ensure my proposal was as commercially viable as possible, so I put together information on what hours I could do, how they would relate to my colleagues work, what I would be able to do in those hours and how I would make sure the role was well-covered."

Marie's HR director listened carefully to her proposal and said that she would get back to her within two days. During those days, Marie continued to work as normal, in the hope that her strong case would mean that she would soon be able to go part time.

Request Denied

However, her request for flexible working was rejected. Marie was called into a meeting with the HR director who explained that her request had been carefully considered, but it was judged that the workload would be too great on her colleagues and that the company did not think that Marie would be able to fulfil her job responsibilities adequately in the time she had suggested.

Marie concluded, "I felt so frustrated. I knew that they did not have to accept my request, and I understood their reasons, but it still made me feel as though I could not continue to work full time. I decided to hand in my notice. I was allowed to leave after one week's notice and I'm now at home with the baby full time, although I'm looking for part time work locally. It does mean that we have less money, but as long as the bills are covered, I feel as though I'm doing the right thing for our family."

(b) How I Requested Flexible Working

Julie Highland, 32, was so determined that her request for flexible working would be accepted that she put in a considerable amount of time into her application.

Entitled to Apply for Flexible Working

Since April 2009, all employees with children under 16 are entitled to request flexible working and, although their employers need to be able to show that they have given the application due consideration, they have no legal right to accept it. Prior to April 2009, only parents or guardians of children under 6 or disabled children under 18 were entitled to apply. Flexible working applicants must be full-time permanent employees (not agency or freelance staff) and have worked for the company for at least 26 weeks before their application.

Julie was careful to research all the legal details of applying for flexible working as well as trying to understand all the 'unwritten' rules. She explained, "As I was applying for flexible working before April 2009, I was entitled to apply because my daughter was still only two and a half. I had really enjoyed my maternity leave and thought that I was ready to go back to work full time, but I was finding full time work increasingly hard to juggle with childcare arrangements. When I first went back to work my mother had my daughter for two days a week, with a childminder having her the other three days. It was not only a lovely way for my mother and daughter to bond, but also saved me lots of money in childcare fees! "

She continued, "After I had been back at work for about a year, my mother fell ill. Although she recovered, she no longer felt capable of looking after my daughter and so I tried to arrange for the childminder to look after her all week. Unfortunately, the childminder was not able to have her for the other two days, so I would spend ages juggling diaries and days off with my husband, my mother in law and other friends. It just wasn't a permanent solution, so I decided to look into flexible working."

Options Available

The options for flexible working include home working, teleworking, job sharing, compressed hours (fitting the same amount of work into fewer hours), flexi-time (doing a certain amount of hours per week/day at times of your choosing) and term-time working only.

Julie continued, "I knew that I would be able to do my work within compressed hours, but I also knew that another colleague had her request for that denied, due to her being unable to prove her capabilities. I decided that I would write a very detailed presentation to highlight why I knew I could achieve this, such as detailing other projects I had worked on, clarifying the childcare I had in place and illustrating how my home-office set up would enable me to deal with any issues outside of work hours. I took this presentation to my line manager and HR manager and I'm pleased to say they accepted my request for flexible working on the condition that the situation is reviewed in six months. That review is planned for a few weeks time and I am hoping it will continue as it has been very positive."

(c) How I Dealt With Redundancy

When Len Fulton was made redundant at the age of 54, he found it hard to accept at first. Having worked as a senior mortgage advisor for a high street bank, Len knew that his skills were transferable, but he didn't know how to transfer them!

Len explained, "I wouldn't say that being made redundant was a total surprise, but I was certainly surprised by my reaction to it. When I was told, I just felt numb, and that feeling continued for at least three weeks. I don't suppose three weeks sounds very long, but at the time it seemed like forever."

Hard at First

Len was able to stay at home and be looked after by his wife, Jill, although this did not really help Len to think positively about the situation. He continued, "I was amazed at how long I felt so bad for, and how quickly. As soon as I finished work, it was almost as though all those years of making myself get up when my alarm clock went off were catching up with me. Together with the reaction to being made redundant, I think I just 'switched off' for a bit. Jill was great at looking after me, but I really needed some professional advice to guide me."

This was exactly the advice that Len received from his GP, whom Jill convinced him to speak to after three weeks of feeling rotten. His doctor signposted Len towards the local library, who were able to set up a meeting with a careers advisor.

Len continued, "Having an appointment with the careers advisor focused my mind and gave me a date to prepare for. Although it felt strange to be asking for careers advice at 54, I have to say it really opened my eyes. I had assumed that I would just start looking for another mortgage advisor position at some point, but the careers advisor was helpful in making me see things differently and consider new options."

A Fresh Start

So differently, in fact, that Len decided not to go back to being a mortgage advisor. Although he enjoyed his job, time away from the office environment had helped Len to appreciate that he wanted a better work-life balance for the remaining years of his working life. He wanted to utilise his professional experience in a new field, without the same high pressure situation he faced in the bank, with strict targets and early starts.

Len concluded, "I was also about to be a granddad for the first time and my redundancy made me see that I wanted to be able to spend more time with my family. Jill and I had been careful with money and had no mortgage ourselves, so I didn't need to earn the same salary as before. I decided to work as an independent financial advisor on a self-employed basis, which meant that I was able to choose my own hours and work with the clients I believed in. I have to say it has improved my quality of life immensely."

2. National rail strike at Easter after ballot

The UK faces its first national rail strike in 16 years this Easter bank holiday weekend after more workers from the RMT voted for action.

Some 5,000 signaling staff, as well as 12,000 maintenance workers, are preparing for a series of national walk-outs which would ground the network during one of the busiest times of the year.

Rail, Maritime and Transport union leaders will hold last-ditch talks with senior management of Network Rail under the auspices of the conciliation service Acas early next week.

It's not clear how long the talks will last. The union's executive is planning to meet on Thursday to decide whether to go ahead with any action which is likely to involve both the signaling and maintenance staff.

Bob Crow, the union's leader, said tonight: "We remain committed to reaching a negotiated settlement." But if the talks were not successful, he did not rule out a series of stoppages by members over the Easter weekend, with Good Friday falling on 2 April. Unions have to give seven days notice before taking any industrial action.

Theresa Villiers, the shadow transport secretary, accused Crow of "trying to drag us back to the 70s and the dying days of the last Labor government" as the Conservatives continued to play on the government's historic links to the trade unions.

Crow hit back: "It's got nothing to do with the Conservative party."

Union officials announced that 54% of its members had backed strikes, with 77% supporting industrial action short of a strike. This could include working to rule and refusing to do overtime.

Last week, the RMT's maintenance workers also voted in favour of action. The union said it would wait for the outcome of the negotiations with Network Rail before naming any strike dates.

The union is fighting plans by Network Rail to axe 1,500 maintenance jobs, out of a workforce of 18,000, and also has safety concerns over the decision to restructure the division. Network Rail is also trying to get some signallers to agree to move from a three day to a four day week. The RMT said it had been in talks with Network Rail for three years over the changes.

The operator has been ordered by the rail regulator to cut its budget by £5bn over the next five years.

Network Rail believes it can withstand a maintenance strike for at least a week with only some line closures. But it admits a signallers strike could bring the busiest sections of the network to a halt because the main signalling centres, which employ around 3,000 people, would not be staffed.

Network Rail responded to today's vote by saying the RMT would be foolish to strike. It also argued the union would be "disappointed with the weakness of the ballot result".

Robin Gisby, the Network Rail director of operations and customer services, said less than a third of those balloted had voted to go on strike.

"Despite its militancy, the RMT would be foolish to move forward with any action that would cause misery to millions of passengers and damage the recovering economy," he said.

Crow insisted that union members believe the job cuts and changes to working practices were not safe. Asked about the prospect of disruption to Easter rail travel, he said: "Network Rail normally close the network down over Easter anyway and replace trains with buses." Crow accused Network Rail of only taking issues seriously once industrial action had been threatened.

Michael Roberts, the chief executive of the Association of Train Operating Companies, said: "This would be the first national strike for 16 years and, if it goes ahead, it will exasperate passengers."

"The priority for train companies is to make things as straightforward as they can for passengers."

Further Reading

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Useful Websites

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Chapter 18

British Literature



导 读

Introduction

英国文学的成就已经广为人知，从古凯尔特文学到中世纪复兴时期的文学的兴盛，再到16、17和18世纪文学作品创作的不同风格体现。英国文学在世界文学发展进程中一直有着重要的地位。要了解英国，就必须知道英国文学发展的不同时期的特点，并且要了解主要作家的作品和他们的独特文学风格。因为，他们的文学创作的灵感来源于英国社会，并且用他们的文学作品影响着英国的社会生活。该章节以英国文学发展的时期为框架，介绍不同时期的背景特点和主要代表作者。本章同时也介绍20世纪英国文学作品和当代英国社会的文学发展趋势。

I. Introduction

British Literature covers several stages. Firstly it is the old English literature, then late medieval literature, early modern English literature, the 19th century English literature, and the 20th century English literature. We use English literature in this chapter as well; it also refers to British literature, which includes not only the literature work in England but also Ireland, Scotland and Welsh. We will look at each stage respectively.

II. Old English Literature

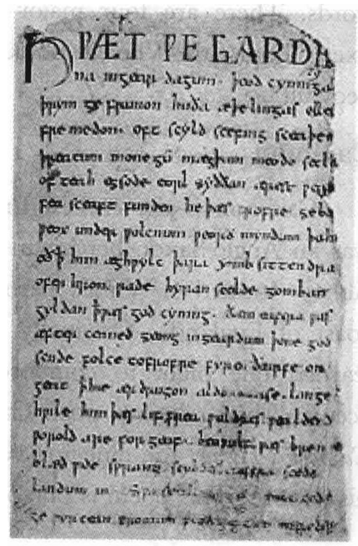
Old English literature work refers to those produced in Old English, which is also called Anglo-Saxon. It is around 600-year Anglo-Saxon period of England (from the mid-5th century to the Norman Conquest of 1066). The literature produced during this period is diversified, such as epic poetry, hagiography, sermons, Bible translations, riddles and others, and the language used is old English and the vernacular (the dialect). These old English literature is the record of the oldest vernacular used. The reason for the emergence of old English literature was for the political and national purposes. After Danish invasions (around AD 800), the church officials were concerned that people would not be able to read in

Latin due to the decline of Latin education. And the King Alfred the Great (849-899) wanted to restore the English culture by encouraging the teaching and learning old English.

Today the research focus of Old English literature is on the Germanic roots of English, and the current emphasis is on paleography and the physical manuscripts. Most scholars debate on topics such as dating, place of origin, and authorship.

Now we will discuss different types of literature works. Firstly, Epic Poetry. The "epic", as the word, is derived from the ancient Greek, "epikos", meaning word, story or poem. Normally, it refers to a long narrative poem, involving a serious theme of heroic deeds and significant events of a nation. It was very popular for people to consider oral poetry as an epic. Epics were believed to be written down since Homer. And that's the main reason why these works could survive till today. Apart from Homer's works, Virgil's *Aeneid* and Milton's *Paradise Lost* are known as epics as well. Among many epics, *Beowulf* has established its national reputation of being one of the most significant old English epic poems.

Beowulf



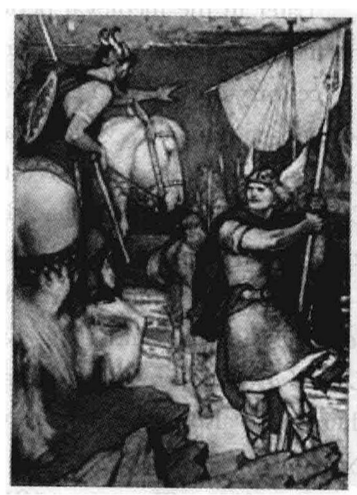
Beowulf's author is unknown. It is generally agreed that it was produced between the 8th and the early 11th century, set in Denmark and Sweden. And it is mostly agreed as one of the most important works of Anglo-Saxon literature. The poem Beowulf depicts Beowulf of the Geats, which were a North Germanic tribe inhabiting what is now Geatland, land of the Geats, in modern Sweden. This epic is significant due to the way of depiction, in which the hero travels long distances to prove his strength at impossible odds to fight demons and beasts which embody supernatural power. The poet not only told the story but also brought excitement and adventure to the readers. What's more, the poem also has legendary elements, which are proved by archaeological excavations.

In the epic, Beowulf fights three antagonists, Grendel, Grendel's mother and a dragon. Due to his courageous behavior, Beowulf was assigned King of the Geats. However, in the last battle, Beowulf was injured fatally and after his death, he was buried in Geatland.

First battle: Grendel

The story of Beowulf begins with the King of Hroegar, who built the great hall for his people. The King and his people lived there happily until Grendel, an outcast, is angry and then attacks the hall and kills many people. The King Hroegar and his people are helpless and finally abandon their living place.

A young warrior from Geatland, Beowulf, gets the news and leaves his homeland to help the King Hroegar. He and his men stay in the deserted hall one night when Grendel enters and starts attacking them. Beowulf fights Grendel and gives him fatal attack by tearing his arm off.



Beowulf is challenged by a Danish coast guard, Evelyn Paul (1911).

Second battle: Grendel's mother

The next night, after the celebration of Grendel's death, Grendel's

mother arrives at the hall and takes the revenge on killing the people there. Beowulf, this time, is dragged to the bottom of a lake. There Beowulf fiercely fights Grendel's mother. Finally Beowulf beheads her.

The Third battle: The dragon

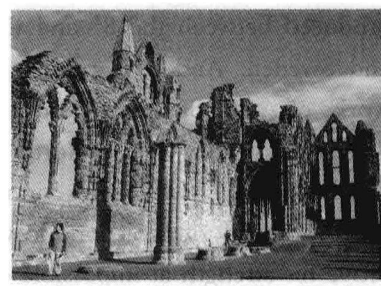
After killing of Grendel and Grendel's mother, Beowulf returns to his own land and eventually becomes the King. One angry dragon attacks Beowulf and his people. Beowulf then begins to fight the dragon to save his people and his land. However, Beowulf, after killing the dragon, dies from the wounds.



A 1908 depiction of Beowulf fighting the unnamed dragon by J. R. Skelton.

The story of Beowulf is a typical heroic poem. Apart from this, there are about 400 surviving manuscripts containing Old English text. These manuscripts are considered for their historical value and the beauty of words. There are four major manuscripts: the Junius manuscript, the Exeter Book, the Vercelli Book and the Nowell Codex (the one contains Beowulf).

Cædmon



Whitby Abbey

Cædmon is the earliest English poet whose name is known. He was an Anglo-Saxon herdsman connected to the monastery of Whitby Abbey (located in Whitby harbor in North Yorkshire on the north-east coast of England). Originally he did not know the art of song but learned one night to compose in his dream. Later he became an accomplished religious poet. Cædmon's only known surviving work is *Cædmon's Hymn*, the nine-line vernacular poem in honor of God and he supposedly learned to sing this in his dreams. This poem is one of the earliest attested examples of Old English.

III. Middle English Literature

Later in the medieval period a new form of English now known as Middle English evolved. This is the name given by historical linguists to the diverse form of the English language in use between the late 11th century and around 1470 when a form of London-based English (the Chancery Standard) began to become widespread, which was promoted with the introduction of the printing press in the late 1470s. Old English adopted Late West Saxon conventions. Different from it, Middle English as a written language shows a variety of forms. And this is the earliest form which is comprehensible to modern readers.



The most significant Middle English author is Geoffrey Chaucer, who is regarded as the father of English literature. Apart from Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*, religious literature was also very popular at that time. And there were also active women writers, such as Marie de France and Julian of Norwich.

Geoffrey Chaucer (***1343—1400***)

Geoffrey Chaucer was an English poet, philosopher, bureaucrat, and

diplomat. He wrote many works and is best known for *The Canterbury Tales*. Chaucer was born around 1343 in London. His name is derived from the French word, chausseur, meaning shoemaker. There are few details of Chaucer's early life. It is known that he worked as a courtier, a diplomat, and a civil servant.

His work, *The Canterbury Tales*, is a collection of stories written in Middle English. The tales are about a group of pilgrims as they travel together on a journey from Southwark to the shrine of Saint Thomas Becket at Canterbury Cathedral. And this tale distinguishes itself from others in its intense variation of genre. Most story collections would focus on one theme, normally a religious one. However, Chaucer's tale focuses on a group of pilgrims and uses this as a device to achieve a diverse collection of people for literary purposes and this was unprecedented. This is also the admirable technique Chaucer showed in his writing. Another feature considered important of the tale is the structure and focus of the tale. The Tales shows a linear structure, telling the story one after another ignoring the progress of the trip, the time passing or the specific locations along the journey. However, the telling focuses on the stories being told.

The Canterbury Tales was written during the turbulent time. At that time the Catholic Church was in the subject to controversy. As mentioned in the Tales, an early English religious movement was going on. Due to the unstable situation in London, Chaucer was forced to move to Kent later. The Tales reflect diverse religious views of that time during which people began to question the authority of the Catholic Church. In The Tales, two characters, the Pardoner and the Summoner, have roles directly tied to the church's monetary power. And both characters are portrayed as extremely corrupt, greedy and abusive. A pardoner was a person to whom people would pay indulgences in exchange for forgiveness of sins. And Summoner is a clergyman whose job was to bring sinners to the church for possible excommunication. Both of them had the power to charge fees for their services, however, they would be guilty if found using the fees for their own purposes.

William Langland's Piers Plowman

Along with Chaucer's Tales is William Langland's *Piers Plowman*, which is also considered to be of the early great work of English literature. *Piers Plowman* is the 14th century English dream-version. Almost nothing is known of Langland.

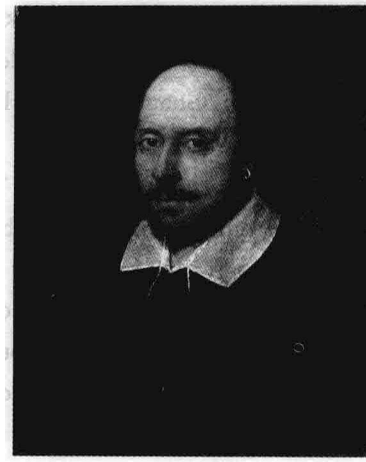
Piers Plowman, written between 1360-1387, is a Middle English narrative poem. It is composed with unrhymed alliterative verse divided into sections called 'passus'. The poem itself, allegorical and satire, shows the author's intense feeling for the true Christian life and is depicted from the medieval Catholic point of view.

The poem is a series of dream-versions and an examination into the lives of three characters: Dowel, Dobet and Dobest. The names of three characters are interpreted as Do-Well, Do-Better and Do-Best. The poem begins in the Malvern Hills in Malvern, Worcestershire. A man named Will falls asleep and has a vision of a tower on a hill and a fortress in a deep valley. These symbols are interpreted as heaven and hell. The plowman (as indicated in the title) appears and offers himself as the narrator's guide to Truth. Then the narrator starts his search for Dowel, Dobet and Dobest.

IV. Early Modern Literature

Elizabethan literature refers to the English literature produced during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I

(1558—1603). This period was a great flourishing of literature, especially in drama. The earlier Elizabethan plays, such as Gorboduc by Sackville and Norton, and The Spanish Tragedy by Kyd, provided much material for Hamlet, William Shakespeare.



William Shakespeare, who was baptized on 26th April, 1564 and died on 23rd April, 1616, was an English poet and playwright. He is world-widely regarded as the greatest writer in the English language and the world's preeminent dramatist. His works, including collaborations, consist of 38 plays, 154 sonnets, two long narrative poems, and several other poems. His works have been translated into every major living language and are performed more often than those of any other playwright.

Shakespeare was born and raised in Stratford-upon-Avon, which is a market town in south Warwickshire, England. The town lies on the River Avon, 22 miles south east of Birmingham. Shakespeare married Anne Hathaway at the age of 18, and they had three children. He then became a successful actor around year 1585-1592. At the same time, he also achieved as a writer and owner of a playing company called the Lord Chamberlain's Men, which was later known as the King's Men. In his later life, he moved back to Stratford around 1613. Shakespeare produced most of his work between 1589 and 1613. He was a respected poet and playwright in his days.

Shakespeare's Plays

Shakespeare produced comedies and histories in his early days and then wrote mainly tragedies, such as *Hamlet*, *King Lear*. His early classical comedies contain tight double plots and precise comic sequences. For example, *A Midsummer Night's Dream* embodies a mixture of romance, fairy magic and comic lowlife scenes. *Merchant of Venice*, another comedy, portrays the Jewish moneylender Shylock. And the wit and wordplay of *Much Ado About Nothing*, the charm and lively *Twelfth Night* all contribute to the Shakespeare's great comedies.

Around late of 1590s, Shakespeare developed prose comedy into histories, such as *Henry IV* and *Henry V*. The characters he created become more sophisticated along the scenes between comic and serious ones. It is said that this period begins and ends with two tragedies: *Romeo and Juliet*, which talks about the famous romantic tragedy of love and death, and *Julius Caesar*, based on Sir Thomas North's 1579 translation of *Plutarch's Parallel Lives*. It was also at this time, Shakespeare developed narrative variety of his work.

In the early 1600s, Shakespeare wrote the so-called "problem-plays", such as *Measure for Measure*, *Troilus and Cressida*, and *All's Well That Ends Well*. This is also the peak time for Shakespeare's greatest tragedies, for instance, *Hamlet*, which portrays a hesitative character and his famous soliloquy "To be or not to be; that is the question." Other tragedies depicted the flaw of hasty errors of judgment, such as in *Othello* and *King Lear*. In *Othello*, the villain Iago stokes Othello's jealousy to the point so that he murders the innocent wife who loves him. In *King Lear*, the old king commits the tragic error of giving up his powers, leading to the death of his daughter. In *Macbeth*, the shortest tragedy play, the desire and ambition lures Macbeth and his wife to murder the king and usurp the throne. They both are destroyed by their own guilt. We can see that Shakespeare's tragedies mostly picture the fatal flaw, which will

destroy the hero and those he loves. What's more, Shakespeare's play offers no relief to his readers.

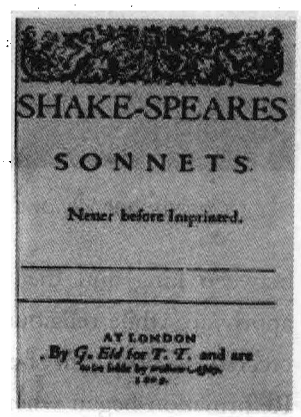
In Shakespeare's later and final life period, he turned to romance or sometimes called tragicomedy and finished three more plays: *Cymbeline*, *The Winter's Tale* and *The Tempest*, together with the collaboration, *Pericles*, *Prince of Tyre*. The tone of these four plays is graver then his early productions, but the ending shows forgiveness for the tragic errors. Some commentators view this change as evidence of a more mature view of life on Shakespeare's part, but some argue that this may simply indicate the fashion of those days' drama.

Shakespeare's Poems

During 1953 and 1954, theatres were closed due to plague. Shakespeare published two narrative poems, *Venus and Adonis* and *The Rape of Lucrece*, which show the guilt and moral confusion that result from uncontrolled lust. Both of these poems were popular at his time. The third narrative poem, *A Lover's Complaint*, describing a young woman laments her seduction by a persuasive suitor, was printed in the 1609's sonnets.

Sonnets

The Sonnets, *or Shakespeare's Sonnets*, is a collection of poems in sonnet form and deals with themes, such as time, love, beauty and mutability. All 154 poems were published in a 1609 collection with the title "*SHAKE-SPEARES SONNETS*".


SHAKE-SPEARES

SONNETS.

Neuer before Imprinted.

AT LONDON

By G. Eld for T. T. and are

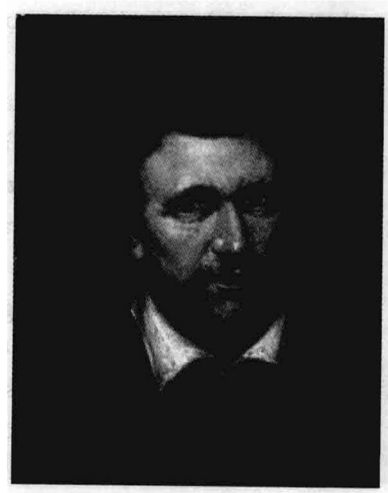
The sonnets are mostly constructed from three four-line stanzas and a final couplet with the rhyme scheme. It is still unknown when each of the 154 sonnets was composed, but the evidence suggests that Shakespeare wrote sonnets throughout his career for a private readership.

Several of Shakespeare's sonnets are believed to address to a young man, persuading him to get married and have children. Today there is still the argument about the authorization of the publication of the sonnets.

Ben Jonson and Christopher Marlowe

Ben Johnson and Christopher Marlowe were also leading playwrights in Elizabethan time. Ben Jonson (1572—1637) was an English Renaissance dramatist, poet and actor. He is most famous for his satirical plays and lyric poems. Christopher Marlow(1564—1593) was an English dramatist, poet and translator.

Ben Jonson created several tragedies, but they were not very successful. Instead, Jonson's comedies were popular at his time. His early plays were not very praised due to loose plots and less-developed characters. In his later plays, he developed good skill in presenting absurdity and hypocrisy. His *Eastward Ho* and *The Devil is an Ass* were most important pieces for city comedy, with a London setting and themes of trickery and money. Jonson's poetry was influenced by his classical learning. Some of his poems are close translations of Greek or Roman models, showing rigidness to form and style. His best poetry *Epigrams*, published in 1616, was popular among late-Elizabethan and

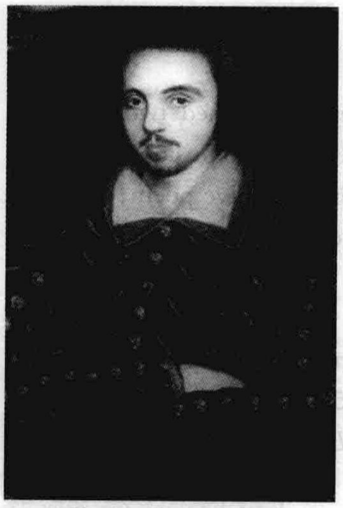

Ben Jonson

Jacobean audiences.

A warrant was issued for Marlowe's arrest on 18 May, 1593. No reason was given. Ten days later, Marlowe was stabbed to death. And the case was never solved. Marlowe's play, *Tamburlaine*, was the first one performed in London and it was a success. He produced several plays but the sequence is unknown. Marlowe's plays were successful.



Francis Bacon



Christopher Marlow

Francis Bacon was an English philosopher, statesman, scientist, lawyer, and author. He served as Attorney General and Lord Chancellor of England. Bacon was knighted in 1603. And he was a very influential and prolific author. He did not propose an actual philosophy; instead he developed the philosophical thinking in his Essays, published in 1597, together with the *Colours of Good and Evil* and the *Meditations Sacrae*. His famous aphorism, 'knowledge is power', is found in the *Meditations*.

1600-1800's Literature

During the 17th century, the constitutional monarchy emerged in England; however the constitutional government did not come easily. It was followed by a civil war (1642-1649). Politically, disputes arouse between king and the parliament over the king's ability to institute new taxes without parliamentary approval, while religious tensions between the Anglican king and a vocal group of reformers in Parliament created a deep rift between the two branches of government. At the same time, the Protestant Reformation began when Martin Luther published *The Ninety-Five Theses*. Many valuable manuscripts were kept till today. John Evelyn and Samuel Pepys, who are considered as diaries, kept recording the daily life of London and the cultural events. Their works are of great value for the understanding of the English Restoration period and offers accounts for many important historical events, such as the Great Plague of London and the Great Fire of London. At this time, there was a tradition of Bible translation into English with the introduction by the work of William Tyndale, which was the standard Bible of the Church of England.

It was under such a turbulence and chaos that during this period of time, Britain witnessed several famous writers and their masterpieces.

John Milton and his Paradise Lost



John Milton(1608-1674) was an English poet, author and civil servant. He was best known for his epic poem *Paradise Lost*, which was composed in blank verse. The book was originally published in 1667 in ten books. The second edition was issued in 1674 in 12 books. The poem is a Christian story of the Fall of Man. That is the temptation Man faces (as illustrated in the Bible, Adam and Eve's expulsion from the Garden of Eden). Milton stated in his book that he was to justify the ways of God to men and elucidate the conflict between God's eternal foresight and free will. The



poem also deals with diverse topics like marriage, politics, and monarchy together with theological issues: fate, predestination and the Trinity.

***John Bunyan* (*1628-1688*)**

John Bunyan was an English Christian writer and preacher, famous for his *The Pilgrim's Progress*. Bunyan had very little education. He served in the parliamentary army during 1644-1647 as the civil war was near the end of the first stage. After the civil war, Bunyan returned to his hometown and consumed the business there. Afterwards, he developed great interests in religious life. *The Pilgrim's Progress from This World to That Which Is to Come* is a Christian allegory, published in 1678. This work is regarded as one of the most significant works of English literature and has been translated into more than 200 languages.

The protagonist created by Bunyan is a Christian, who journeys from his hometown, the 'City of Destruction', which refers to 'this world', to the 'Celestial City', which refers to 'Heaven'. This Christian finds himself carrying great burden (his understanding of his sin), which he believes coming from reading of 'the book in his hand' (the Bible). This burden could cause him sinking into Tophet (Hell), therefore urging him to look for deliverance. The book tells the story in two parts. The first part, published in London in 1678, describes the protagonist's journey to the Celestial City. Along the way, Christian meets many people who help him and direct him to the correct path. The second part, published in 1728, presents the pilgrimage of Christian's wife, Christiana, their sons, and the maiden, Mercy. They travel to the same places where Christian visited, but they take a longer time in order to accommodate marriage and childbirth.

The Pilgrim's Progress is one of the most widely known allegories ever written. It was the intense imagination which the author employed to create the different kinds of characters and incidents that attract so many readers. Also the idiomatic usage of English touches on the humor which leaves the readers with deep impression. Bunyan wrote about 60 books. There are also other two successful works of Bunyan: *The Life and Death of Mr. Badman* (1680), which is an imaginary biography, and *The Holy War* (1682), an allegory considered next to *The Pilgrim's Progress*. Bunyan was once referred by Rudyard Kipling as "the father of the novel, salvation's first Defoe".

English Novels

With the uprising middle-class in the society, the English novel developed during the 18th century. The 18th century novel tended to be loosely structured and semi-comic. One of the major novelists of the middle and later part of the century is Henry Fielding.



***Henry Fielding* (*1707-1754*)**

Henry Fielding was an English novelist and dramatist known for his humor and satirical prowess, and his famous novel *Tom Jones*. Fielding received his education at Eton College. Later he went to London where he started his literary career. Fielding's *Tom Jones* was published in 1749, and was considered as one of the earliest English prose works described as a novel. It is divided into 18 smaller books. The protagonist, Tom Jones, is a foundling discovered on the property of a very kind, wealthy landowner,

Squire Allworthy, in England. Tom grows into a vigorous and lusty, yet honest and kind-hearted young man. He later falls in love with his neighbour's daughter, Sophia Western. Their love presents the romantic comedy style which was popular in 18th century Britain. However, Tom's status causes Sophia's father to oppose their love, and this discrimination on social classes reflects social commentary.

Fielding did not explore in any depth of his characters. It is believed that partially lacking of psychological realism and partially concerning to reveal the universal order of things are the two reasons for this. *Tom Jones* reflects Fielding's neoclassical outlook. Characters in Fielding's novels also corresponded to the real life types, such as the drinking, addicted to hunting.

19th century English Literature

Near the end of the 18th century in Western Europe rose Romanticism, which is a complex artistic, literary and intellectual movement. Romanticism did not rise simply as a new form of arts, but it developed together with the Industrial Revolution, which was also an advancement of the rise of middle class in the society. Partially it was a revolt against aristocratic social and political norms and partially it was a reaction against the scientific rationalization of nature. Romanticism presented itself in the visual arts, music and literature.

Romanticism values emotion as an authentic source of aesthetic experience, placing new emphasis on such emotions as trepidation, horror and terror, and awe. It promoted folk art and ancient custom to something noble. Romanticism went beyond the rational and Classicist ideal models to promote a revived medievalism in order to escape the confines of population growth, urban sprawl, and industrialism. At the same time, Romanticism inspired the rural areas in literacy publishing. Some writers in lesser-used languages and dialects of the islands gained a literary recognition.

The political and social changes during this period of time brought up a new breed of writers: William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge, who brought new trend into literature, like emotionalism, focusing on the individual and the common man. And with the reaction to the urbanism and industrialization, more literature works began to explore nature, like Lake Poets.

Lake Poets



Lake Poets refer to those poets who live in the Lake District of England at the turning point of the 19th century. They, as a group of influential people, are considered as a part of the Romantic Movement. Three most influential figures were William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, and Robert Southey. They were all so much inspired by the beautiful scenery of the Lake District .

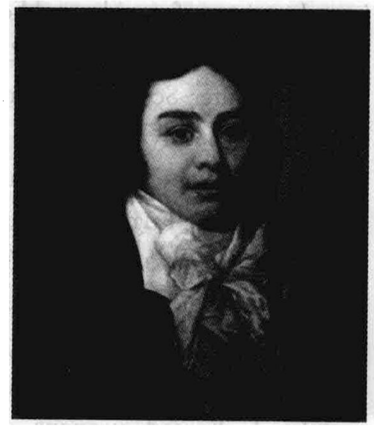


***William Wordsworth* (*1770—1850*)**

William Wordsworth was a major English Romantic poet and he contributed to the development of the Romantic Age in English literature. His Preface to *Lyrical Ballads* is considered as the 'manifesto' of English Romantic criticism. Wordsworth considers his poems "experimental". He published his first poetry in 1793 with the collections *An Evening Walk and Descriptive Sketches*. The same year, he met Samuel Taylor Coleridge, and the two poets soon developed a close friendship. They together published *Lyrical Ballads* in 1798,

which is an important work in the English Romantic Movement. This volume had neither the name of Wordsworth nor Coleridge as the author. The second edition (1800) had only Wordsworth as the author, and included a preface to the poems, which was considered as the development of Romantic literary theory. Wordsworth discusses that he thinks that a new type of poetry is forming, which could base on the 'real language of men' and could avoid the poetic diction of much eighteen-century poetry. He also defines the poetry in the preface that the poetry would be "the spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings: It takes its origin from emotion recollected in tranquility. The fourth and final edition of *Lyrical Ballads* was published in 1805.

Samuel Taylor Coleridge **(*1772—1834*)**



Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772—1834) was an English poet, Romantic, literary critic and philosopher. He was one of the founders of the Romantic Movement together with Wordsworth, and he was one of the Lake Poets. Coleridge is best known for his poems *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner* and *Kubla Khan* and his major prose work *Biographia Literaria*. What's more, his critical work on Shakespeare was also highly influential. Also, he introduced German idealist philosophy to English-speaking culture.

Coleridge's *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner* was his most influential piece of work. Its words have given the English language the metaphor of an albatross around one's neck, the quotation of "water, water everywhere, nor any drop to drink", which then rendered as "but not a drop to drink". His another work, *Kubla Khan*, or *A Vision in a Dream, A Fragment*, is shorter and is famous for imaginative phrasing.

Robert Southey **(*1774—1843*)**



Robert Southey was an English poet of the Romantic school. Though his fame is surpassed by his contemporaries and friends William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge, he still enjoys enduring popularity. Southey was a prolific writer, literary scholar, essay writer, historian and biographer. His biographies include the life and works of John Bunyan, John Wesley, William Cowper, Oliver Cromwell and Horatio Nelson. He was also a profound Portuguese and Spanish scholar and translated a number of works of those two countries into English.

19th Century Novel



Contemporarily, British witnessed a number of renowned novelists. Among those are Jane Austen, Mary Shelly, and Walter Scotts.

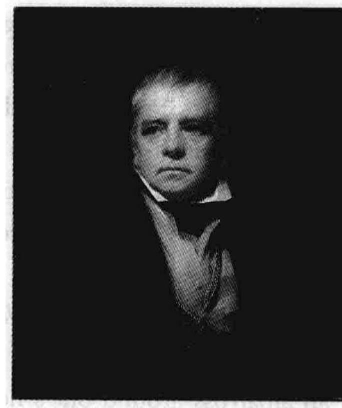
Jane Austen **(*1775—1817*)**

Jane Austen was an English novelist whose romantic fictions are the most widely read and loved by the people. And Austen's realism and bitter social commentary established her importance as a writer. Austen lived her life as part of a small and close-knit family. Her education was mainly from her father and older brothers. She also received strong support from her

family in developing her writing career. Austen's artistic apprenticeship lasted from her teenage years until she was about thirty-five years old. It was during this period of time she experimented with various literary forms. She then published her famous novels: *Sense and Sensibility* (1811), *Pride and Prejudice* (1813), *Mansfield Park* (1814) and *Emma* (1816). Her other two novels, published posthumously in 1818, are *Northanger Abbey* and *Persuasion*.

Austen's works depict comic plots; highlight the dependence of women on marriage to secure social and economic status. It was because she chose to publish her novels anonymously that she did not receive much fame at her time. When her nephew published *A Memoire of Jane Austen* in 1869, Austen was then introduced to a far wider public as an appealing personality.

Sir Walter Scott (*1771—1832*)



Sir Walter Scott was a prolific Scottish historical novelist and poet. Scott was not only popular in Britain but also internationally with many readers in Europe, Australia and North America. And his works remain classics of both English-language literature and Scottish literature. There are *Ivan hoe*, *Rob Roy*, *The Lady of The Lake*, *Waverley*, *The Heart of Midlothian* and *The Bride of Lammermoor*.

Scott started his writing career around the age of twenty-five, translating works from German to English. His first publication was the translated rhymed versions of ballads in 1796. Then he developed interest in Scottish history and published a three-volume set of collected Scottish ballads. His poetry began with the publication of *The Lady of the Lake* in 1810. Due to his outstanding position in the literary field, he became the co-founder of the Quarterly Review in 1809.

Mary Shelly (*1797—1851*)



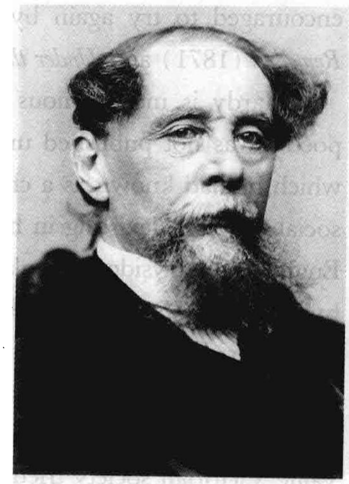
Mary Shelley was a British novelist, short story writer, dramatist, essayist and biographer. She is best known for her Gothic novel *Frankenstein* (1818). She was encouraged by her father to follow her father's liberal political theories. She and her husband travelled to Switzerland in 1816, where she was inspired with the idea later developed to her famous novel *Frankenstein*. Mary Shelley suffered a lot in her life, her four children only survived one, and her pain was aggravated by illness. She died at the age of fifty-three probably due to the brain tumor.

John William Polidori (*1795—1821*)



Polidori was an English writer and physician of Italian descent. He was associated with the Romantic movement and most famous for his work, *The Vampyre* (1819), from which a new genre, vampire genre of fantasy fiction was created.

Another famous novel genre, called Fashionable novels (also silver fork novels), was popular during the 19th century. It was a special type of novel depicting the lives of the upper class.



Charles John Huffam Dickens (***1812—1870***)

During the same period, Charles Dickens emerged. He wrote mainly the life in London and especially the struggle of the poor in good-humored fashion, which made his novels appealing to readers of all classes.

Charles Dickens was the most popular English novelist of the Victorian era and one of the most popular of all time. His characters are the most iconic ones in literature and the theme of social reform is his focus. Much of his work first appeared in periodicals and magazines in sequence, which was a popular way of publishing at his time. His work has been praised for its prose and the personalities he created.

It was said that Dickens loved the style of the 18th century gothic romance. His writing style is florid and poetic. Dickens was famous for his analogy by comparing orphans to stocks and shares, people to tug boats, or dinner-party guests to furniture. All of these contribute to his mixture of fantasy and realism writing style. Dickens is also famous for his portrayal of the hardships of the working class, intricate plots and the sense of humor. The characters he created are so memorable that people could relate them to real persons. His friend, John Forster, said that Dickens made "characters real existences, not by describing them but by letting them describe themselves".

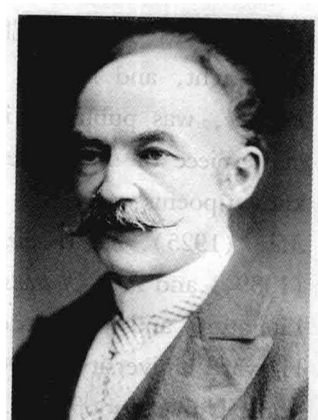
Victorian Era

The Victorian era of the United Kingdom was the period of Queen Victoria's reign from 1837 to 1901. This period was a stage of prosperity for Britain in the international realm due to the financial profits from overseas British Empire and also the inner industrial advancement.

It was during the Victorian era that the novel became the leading form of literature in Britain. Most writers were more concerned with the public instead of aristocratic patrons. It was under such circumstances, we see famous novels, such as *Jane Eyre*, *Wuthering Heights* and *Agnes Grey*, and Middlemarch by George Eliot. It was at this time that realism was best represented by literature works. Realism refers to the trend, beginning with certain works of nineteenth-century French literature and extending to late-nineteenth and early-twentieth-century authors in Europe. It is a kind of writing which describes contemporary life and society as they are.

English Literature since 1900

Since the first decade of the 20th century, the Modernist Movement began to influence English literature. Modernism refers to modern ideas, character or practice, which rejects the lingering of Enlightenment thinking. The modernism is characterized for self-consciousness. Major figures in this period include Thomas Hardy, James Joyce and T.S. Eliot.

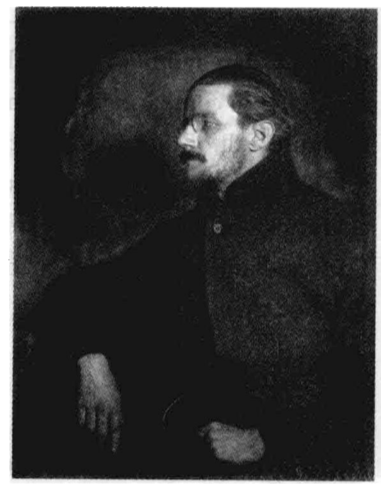


Thomas Hardy (***1840—1928***)

Thomas Hardy was an English novelist and poet. His novels established him as a great novelist. His fictional works explore tragic characters struggling against their passions and social circumstances. Hardy's poetry influenced significantly on the modern English poetry. Hardy's first novel, The Poor Man and the Lady, was not successful in finding the publisher. He was then

encouraged to try again by his mentor and friend Victorian poet, George Meredith. Later, *Desperate Remedies* (1871) and *Under the Greenwood Tree* (1872) were published anonymously.

Hardy is most famous for his novels even though he produced a number of poetry. Most of his poetry was not published until after 1898. Hardy had a deep emotional bond with the rural way of life which he had known as a child, but he was also conscious of the changes which were under way and the social problems existing in his time. He foresaw that the industrial revolution would definitely change the English countryside and also the changes would go much more to reach the life of unfairness and hypocrisy of Victorian life. He is considered, regarding to his real portrayal of life, as a Victorian Realist writer. In *Two on a Tower*, Hardy looks for a point of view against the Victorian rules and sets up a story against the backdrop of social structure through his depiction of the love which goes beyond the boundary of social classes. However, these rules or conventions were exactly the value Victorian society tried to enforce on people at that time.



***James Joyce* (*1882—1941*)**

James Augustine Aloysius Joyce was an Irish writer and poet. He is considered as one of the most influential writers of the 20th century. He is also a fundamental figure in the promotion of the modernist novel. Among his works, *Ulysses* (1922) is the best known. Other short-story collections are *Dubliners* (1914) and the novels *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* (1916) and *Finnegans Wake* (1939).

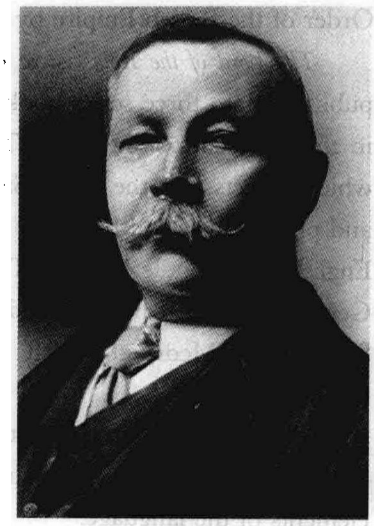
Joyce traveled a lot in his life and these experiences provide essential material for his writing. His association with the Irish Catholic Church is presented by his creation of his character Stephen Dedalus. Most of his fictional stories are strongly influenced by the life he spent at school and college and in the city of Dublin. His Irish experience constitutes the very important element of his writings. The story, *Dubliners*, is a penetrating analysis of the Dublin society. As he almost finished *Dubliners*, Joyce thought of continuing the story on a Jewish advertising canvasser called Leopold Bloom under the title *Ulysses*. The book was finished in 1921, having altogether around 265,000 words and was divided into 18 sections. The book attracted controversy and scrutiny. *Ulysses* experimented with stream of consciousness, careful structuring and rich humor, which made the book the Modernist masterpiece and one of the 100 best English-language novels of the 20th century.



***Thomas Stearns Eliot* (*1888—1965*)**

Thomas Stearns Eliot was an American-born English poet, playwright, and literary critic. His work, *The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock*, was published in Chicago in 1915, and is considered as a masterpiece of the modernist movement. Then he produced his best known poems: *Gerontion* (1920), *The Waste Land* (1922), *The Hollow Men* (1925), *Ash Wednesday* (1930), *Old Possum's Book of Practical Cats* (1939), and *Four Quartets* (1945). He was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature and the Order of Merit in 1948. Eliot graduated from Harvard University in 1909, and he then moved on to learn philosophy at the University of Paris. Afterwards he won the scholarship to study at

Oxford University in 1914 and became a British citizen when he was 39. Eliot himself valued very much his life in Britain, from which he received new inspiration for his work.



Other Figures in British Literature

Sir Arthur Ignatius Conan Doyle (1859-1930) was a Scottish physician and writer. The character he created, Sherlock Homes, is world known and considered an everlasting personality in crime fiction. Conan Doyle was a prolific writer whose works cover science fiction stories, historical novels, plays and non-fictions. His first work was *A Study in Scarlet*, appeared in *Beeton's Christmas Annual* in 1887 and created for the first time the character of Sherlock Holmes. It is believed that Conan Doyle featured this character after his former university professor Joseph Bell. Further short stories were published in the English *Strand Magazine*.

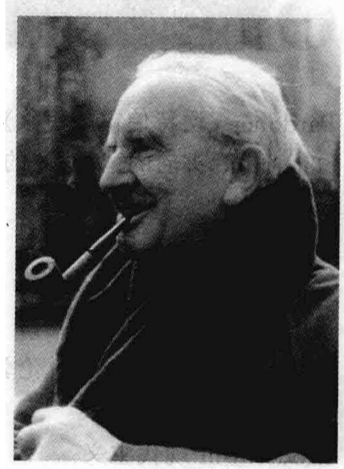
William Butler Yeats (***1865—1939***)



William Butler Yeats was an Irish poet, dramatist, and one the foremost figures of the 20th century literature. He was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1923 for his inspired poetry with a highly artistic spirit contributing to the whole nation. He is famous for his works, such as *The Tower* (1928) and *The Winding Stair and Other Poems* (1929). Yeats was born and received his education in Dublin where he studied poetry and influenced very much by the Irish legends. The first volume of his work was published in 1889 and gradually he started to write more realistic and physical poems.

Yeats is famous for symbolism. He employed allusive imagery and symbolic structures in his poems. Different from other modernists who experimented with free verse, Yeats was a master of the traditional forms. However, the cling to the convention and the favor of the direct approach to his themes were gradually changed. His later poetry reveals more personal experiences, in which he mentions his son and daughter. In the lines of his later work, we could see he emerged himself in the deep thoughts:

Now that my ladder's gone
I must lie down where all the ladders start
In the foul rag and bone shop of the heart. (O'Neill, 6)



John Ronald Reuel Tokien (***1892—1973***)

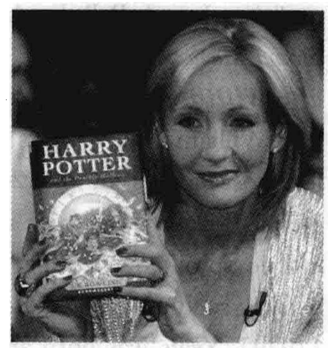
John Tolkien was an English writer, poet and university professor. His work, *The Lord of the Rings* and *The Hobbit*, are the best known stories among the world. Tolkien was a professor of Anglo-Saxon at Oxford University from 1925-1945 and the Professor of English Language and Literature from 1945 to 1959. Tolkien was appointed a Commander of the

Order of the British Empire by Queen Elizabeth II on 28 March, 1972.

The Lord of the Rings is an epic fantasy novel, which was composed during 1937-1949 and was then published into three series books. This work of Tolkien is considered as one of the most influential works in the 20th century literature. This work presents the thinking of philosophy, religion, and fairy tales, which reflects also the Anglo-Saxon poem *Beowulf*. Tolkien had very strong enthusiasm towards language and philosophy, and his study in English philosophy made him a successful teacher in the teaching of Old English and Middle English. Through diligent learning at young age, when he learnt Latin, French and German from his mother, and at school where he learnt Middle English, Old English, Greek, Italian, Spanish and Medieval Welsh, he got the interest in constructing languages, as is shown in the Lord of the Rings.

Tolkien's work intrigued the need for more fictional fantasies. However, the contribution he gave to the literature world is more than that. He let people view the wonder of mythology and the interesting elements of the language.

***Joanne Murray* (*1965—present*)**



Joanne Murry, (penname J.K. Rowling) is a British writer. She establishes her reputation and position in literature today with her series stories of the *Harry Potter*, which have been adapted into films. When she was young, Rowling often wrote fantasy stories and she would read those stories to her younger sister. In 1990, Rowling once told The Boston Globe that, "I don't believe in magic as it occurs in my books — the wand-waving and spell-casting type of magic. But I do believe in magic in a figurative sense." For example, learning to read is a kind of magic that happens in the lives of children. No one knows how it happens — one day a child is trying to decode letters and sounds and the next week he or she is reading and understanding sentences. It's a magic that is metaphorical.

It is no doubt that Britain is country flourishing with creative and imaginative writers all along the history. The prosperous does not come easy; it has been the work of the development of the economy, advancement of the society and the passing on of the knowledge. Just by reading biography of the writers won't bring a whole picture of the development of the British literature; we need also read the history as well as the well-established masterpieces.

Glossary

Pardoner《坎特伯雷故事集》中的一个故事
alliterative 头韵的，头韵体的
prose 散文
soliloquy 自言自语，独白
couplet 对句，对联
lyric 抒情的
Great Plague of London 伦敦大瘟疫(1665-1666)
Lake Poets 湖区诗人
Modernism 现代主义
conjecture 推测，猜想，揣摩
passus (故事或长诗中的)节
Plutarch 希腊著名历史学家，散文家
stanza 节，诗节
satirical 讽刺的，挖苦人的
Martin Luther 德国人，宗教改革创导者
neoclassical 新古典主义的
realism 写实主义，现实，实在论
symbolism 象征主义

Cultural Notes

1. **The Lake Poets** all lived in the Lake District of England at the turn of the 19th century. As a group, they followed no single "school" of thought or literary practice then known, although their works were uniformly disparaged by the *Edinburgh Review*. They are considered part of the Romantic Movement. The three main figures of what has become known as the Lake School were William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, and Robert Southey. They were associated with several other poets and writers, including Dorothy Wordsworth, Charles Lloyd, Hartley Coleridge, John Wilson, and Thomas De Quincey.The beauty of the Lake District has also inspired many other poets over the years, beyond the core Lake Poets. These include James Payn, Bryan Procter, Felicia Hemans and Walter Scott.
2. **The Great Fire of London** was a major conflagration that swept through the central parts of the English city of London, from Sunday, 2 September to Wednesday, 5 September 1666. The fire gutted the medieval City of London inside the old Roman City Wall. It threatened, but did not reach, the aristocratic district of Westminster, Charles II's Palace of Whitehall, and most of the suburban slums. It consumed 13,200 houses, 87 parish churches, St. Paul's Cathedral, and most of the buildings of the City authorities. It is estimated that it destroyed the homes of 70,000 of the City's 80,000 inhabitants. The death toll from the fire is unknown and is traditionally thought to have been small, as only six verified deaths were recorded. This reasoning has recently been challenged on the grounds that the deaths of poor and middle-class people were not recorded anywhere, and that the heat of the fire may have cremated many victims, leaving no recognizable remains. The social and economic problems created by the disaster were overwhelming; significant scapegoating occurred for some time after the fire. Evacuation from London and resettlement elsewhere were strongly encouraged by Charles II, who feared a London rebellion amongst the dispossessed refugees. Despite numerous radical proposals, London was reconstructed on essentially the same street plan used before the fire.
3. **Problem plays** In Shakespeare studies, the term problem plays normally refers to three plays that William Shakespeare wrote between the late 1590s and the first years of the seventeenth century: All's Well That Ends Well, Measure for Measure and Troilus and Cressida, although some critics would extend the term to other plays, most commonly The Winter's Tale, Timon of Athens, and The Merchant of Venice.
4. **rhyme scheme** A rhyme scheme is the pattern of rhyme between lines of a poem or song. It is usually referred to by using letters to indicate which lines rhyme. In other words, it is the pattern of end rhymes or lines. A rhyme scheme gives the scheme of the rhyme.

Questions for Discussion

1. What are the literature features of "Beowulf"?
2. Please summarize the middle age British literature features.
3. Why William Shakespeare is considered the most famous playwright in the UK?

4. What is the feature of modern British literature?
5. Please discuss the development of British literature according to the historical stages.

Supplementary Reading

The Not Especially Fascinating Life So Far of J. K. Rowling



I was born in Chipping Sodbury General Hospital, which I think is appropriate for someone who collects funny names. My sister, Di, was born just under two years later, and she was the person who suffered my first efforts at story-telling (I was much bigger than her and could hold her down). Rabbits loomed large in our early story-telling sessions; we badly wanted a rabbit.

Di can still remember me telling her a story in which she fell down a rabbit hole and was fed strawberries by the rabbit family inside it. Certainly the first story I ever wrote down (when I was five or six) was about a rabbit called Rabbit. He got the measles and was visited by his friends, including a giant bee called Miss Bee. And ever since Rabbit and Miss Bee, I have wanted to be a writer, though I rarely told anyone so. I was afraid they'd tell me I didn't have a hope.

We moved house twice when I was growing up. The first move was from Yate (just outside Bristol) to Winterbourne (on the other side of Bristol). A gang of children including myself and my sister used to play together up and down our street in Winterbourne. Two of the gang members were a brother and sister whose surname was Potter. I always liked the name, but then I was always keener on my friends' surnames than my own ("Rowling" is pronounced like "rolling", which used to lead to annoying children's jokes about rolling pins).

When I was nine we moved to Tutshill near Chepstow in the Forest of Dean. We were finally out in the countryside, which had always been my parents' dream, both being Londoners, and my sister and I spent most of our times wandering unsupervised across fields and along the river Wye. The only fly in the ointment was the fact that I hated my new school. It was a very small, very old-fashioned place where the roll-top desks still had ink-wells. My new teacher, Mrs Morgan, scared the life out of me. She gave me an arithmetic test on the very first morning and after a huge effort I managed to get zero out of ten — I had never done fractions before. So she sat me in the row of desks on her far right. It took me a few days to realise I was in the "stupid" row. Mrs Morgan positioned everyone in the class according to how clever she thought they were; the brightest sat on her left, and everyone she thought was dim sat on the right. I was as far right as you could get without sitting in the playground. By the end of the year, I had been promoted to second left - but at a cost. Mrs Morgan made me swap seats with my best friend, so that in one short walk across the room I became clever but unpopular.

From Tutshill Primary I went to Wyedean Comprehensive. I heard the same rumour about Wyedean that Harry hears from Dudley about Stonewall High (see page of Harry Potter and the

Philosopher's Stone). But it wasn't true — at least, it never happened to me. I was quiet, freckly, short-sighted and rubbish at sports (I am the only person I know who managed to break their arm playing netball). My favourite subject by far was English, but I quite liked languages too. I used to tell my equally quiet and studious friends long serial stories at lunch-times. They usually involved us all doing heroic and daring deeds we certainly wouldn't have done in real life; we were all too swotty. I did once have a fight with the toughest girl in my year, but I didn't have a choice, she started hitting me and it was hit back or lie down and play dead. For a few days I was quite famous because she hadn't managed to flatten me. The truth was that my locker was right behind me and held me up. I spent weeks afterwards peering nervously around corners in case she was waiting to ambush me.

I became less quiet as I got older. For one thing I started wearing contact lenses, which made me less scared of being hit in the face. I wrote a lot in my teens, but I never showed any of it to my friends, except for funny stories that again featured us all in thinly disguised characters. I was made Head Girl in my final year, and I can only think of two things I had to do; one was to show Lady Somebody around the school fair, and the other was give an assembly to the whole school. I decided to play them a record to cut down on the time I had to speak to them. The record was scratched and played the same line of the song over and over again until the Deputy Headmistress kicked it.

I went to Exeter University straight after school, where I studied French. This was a big mistake. I had listened too hard to my parents, who thought languages would lead to a great career as a bilingual secretary. Unfortunately I am one of the most disorganised people in the world and, as I later proved, the worst secretary ever. All I ever liked about working in offices was being able to type up stories on the computer when no-one was looking. I was never paying much attention in meetings because I was usually scribbling bits of my latest stories in the margins of the pad, or choosing excellent names for the characters. This is a problem when you are supposed to be taking the minutes of the meeting.

When I was twenty six I gave up on offices completely and went abroad to teach English as a Foreign Language. My students used to make jokes about my name; it was like being back in Winterbourne, except that the Portuguese children said "Rolling Stone" instead of rolling pin. I loved teaching English, and as I worked afternoons and evenings, I had mornings free for writing. This was particularly good news as I had now started my third novel (the first two had been abandoned when I realised how very bad they were). The new book was about a boy who found out he was a wizard and was sent off to wizard school. When I came back from Portugal half a suitcase was full of papers covered with stories about Harry Potter. I came to live in Edinburgh with my very small daughter, and set myself a deadline; I would finish the Harry novel before starting work as a French teacher, and try to get it published.

It was a year after finishing the book before a publisher bought it. The moment when I found out that Harry would be published was one of the best of my life. By this time I was working as a French teacher and being serenaded down the corridors with the first line of the theme from Rawhide ("Rolling, rolling, rolling, keep those wagons rolling..."). A few months after "Harry" was taken for publication in Britain, an American publisher bought the rights for enough money to enable me to give up teaching and write full time — my life's ambition.

And I've got a real rabbit now. She is large and black and scratches me ferociously every time I try and pick her up. Some things are best left in the imagination.

Further Reading

1. David Damrosch etc. *The Longman Anthology of British Literature.* Longman, 2006
2. Benjamin W. Griffith. *English Literature.* Barron's Educational Series. 1991

Useful Websites

1. www.britannia.com/arts/literature
2. www.studyguide.org